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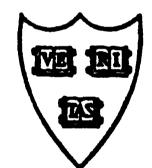
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ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S

NEW LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

EDITED BY

J. B. GREENOUGH G. L. KITTREDGE A. A. HOWARD BENJ. L. D'OOGE

GINN AND COMPANY

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PREFACE

THE present book is a careful revision of the edition of 1888. This revision was planned and actually begun in the lifetime of Professor Greenough and has been carried out in accordance with principles that met with his full approval. The renumbering of the sections has made it possible to improve the arrangement of material in many particulars and to avoid a certain amount of repetition which was inevitable in the former Thus, without increasing the size of the volume, the editors have been able to include such new matter as the advance in grammatical science has afforded. The study of historical and comparative syntax has been pursued with considerable vigor during the past fifteen years, and the well-established results of this study have been inserted in their appropriate places. general, however, the principles and facts of Latin syntax, as set forth by Professor Greenough, have stood the test both of scientific criticism and of practical use in the class-room, and accordingly the many friends of Allen and Greenough's Grammar will not find the new edition strange or unfamiliar in its method or its contents. The editors have seen no occasion to change long-settled nomenclature or to adopt novel classifications when the usual terms and categories have proved satis-On the other hand, they have not hesitated to modify either doctrines or forms of statement whenever improvement seemed possible.

In the matter of "hidden quantity" the editors have been even more conservative than in the former revision. This subject is one of great difficulty, and the results of the most recent investigations are far from harmonious. In many instances the facts

are quite undiscoverable, and, in general, the phenomena are of comparatively slight interest except to special students of the arcana of philology. No vowel has been marked long unless the evidence seemed practically decisive.

The editors have been fortunate in securing the advice and assistance of Professor E. S. Sheldon, of Harvard University, for the first ten pages, dealing with phonetics and phonology. They are equally indebted to Professor E. P. Morris, of Yale University, who has had the kindness to revise the notes on historical and comparative syntax. Particular acknowledgment is also due to Mr. M. Grant Daniell, who has coöperated in the revision throughout, and whose accurate scholarship and long experience as a teacher have been of the greatest service at every point.

SEPTEMBER 1, 1903.

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ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S NEW LATIN GRAMMAR

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LATIN GRAMMAR

Latin Grammar is usually treated under three heads: 1. Words and Forms; 2. Syntax; 3. Prosody. Syntax treats of the function of words when joined together as parts of the sentence; Prosody of their arrangement in metrical composition.

PART FIRST—WORDS AND FORMS

THE ALPHABET

1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English (which is in fact borrowed from it) except that it does not contain J, U, and W.

NOTE 1.— The Latin alphabet was borrowed in very early times from a Greek alphabet (though not from that most familiar to us) and did not at first contain the letters G and Y. It consisted of capital letters only, and the small letters with which we are familiar did not come into general use until the close of the eighth century of our era.

NOTE 2.—The Latin names of the consonants were as follows:—B, be (pronounced bay); C, ce (pronounced kay); D, de (day); F, ef; G, ge (gay); H, ha; K, ka; L, el; M, em; N, en; P, pe (pay); Q, qu (koo); R, er; S, es; T, te (tay); X, ix; Z, zeta (the Greek name, pronounced dzayta). The sound of each vowel was used as its name.

a. The character C originally meant G, a value always retained in the abbreviations C. (for Gāius) and Cn. (for Gnaeus).

Note. — In early Latin C came also to be used for K, and K disappeared except before a in a few words, as Kal. (Kalendae), Karthāgō. Thus there was no distinction in writing between the sounds of g and k. Later this defect was remedied by forming (from C) the new character G. This took the alphabetic place formerly occupied by Z, which had gone out of use. In Cicero's time (see N. D. ii. 93), Y (originally a form of V) and Z were introduced from the ordinary Greek alphabet to represent sounds in words derived from the Greek, and they were put at the end of the Latin alphabet.

b. I and V were used both as vowels and as consonants (see § 5).

NOTE. -- V originally denoted the vowel sound u (00), and F stood for the sound of our consonant w. When F acquired the value of our f, V came to be used for the sound of w as well as for the vowel u.

In this book i is used for both vowel and consonant i, u for vowel u, and v for consonant u:—iūs, vir, iuvenis.

Classification of Sounds

2. The simple Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y.

The Diphthongs are ae, au, ei, eu, oe, ui, and, in early Latin, ai, oi, ou. In the diphthongs both vowel sounds are heard, one following the other in the same syllable.

- 3. Consonants are either voiced (sonant) or voiceless (surd). Voiced consonants are pronounced with the same vocal murmur that is heard in vowels; voiceless consonants lack this murmur.
 - 1. The voiced consonants are b, d, g, l, r, m, n, z, consonant i, v.
 - 2. The voiceless consonants are p, t, c (k, q), f, h, s, x.
 - 4. Consonants are further classified as in the following table:

	Voiced (mediae) Voiceless (tenuēs) Aspirates	L'abials b	DENTALS	PALATALS
Mutes	Voiceless (tenues)	p	đ	g c (k, q)
ALUVOS	Aspirates	ph	th	oh
Nasals	· -	m	n	n (before c, g, q)
Liquida	3		1, r	-
Fricativ	ves (Spirants)	f 1	s , z	
Sibilan	ts		s , z	
Semivo	wels	V		consonant i

Double consonants are x = cs and z = dz; h is merely a breathing.

- 1. Mutes are pronounced by blocking entirely, for an instant, the passage of the breath through the mouth, and then allowing it to escape with an explosion (distinctly heard before a following vowel). Between the explosion and the vowel there may be a slight puff of breath (h), as in the Aspirates (ph, th, ch).²
 - 2. Labials are pronounced with the lips, or lips and teeth.
- 3. Dentals (sometimes called Linguals) are pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching or approaching the upper front teeth.
- 4. Palatals are pronounced with a part of the upper surface of the tongue touching or approaching the palate.⁸
- 5. Fricatives (or Spirants) are consonants in which the breath passes continuously through the mouth with audible friction.
- 6. Nasals are like voiced mutes, except that the mouth remains closed and the breath passes through the nose.
 - 1 Strictly a labio-dental, pronounced with the under lip touching the upper teeth.
- ² The aspirates are almost wholly confined to words borrowed from the Greek. In early Latin such borrowed sounds lost their aspiration and became simply p, t, c.
- ⁸ Palatals are often classed as (1) velars, pronounced with the tongue touching or rising toward the soft palate (in the back part of the mouth), and (2) palatals, in which the tongue touches or rises toward the hard palate (farther forward in the mouth). Compare the initial consonants in key and cool, whispering the two words, and it will be observed that before e and i the k is sounded farther forward in the mouth than before a, o, or u.

5. The vowels i and u serve as consonants when pronounced rapidly before a vowel so as to stand in the same syllable. Consonant i has the sound of English consonant y; consonant u (v) that of English consonant w.

Consonant i and u (v) are sometimes called Semivowels.

NOTE 1.—The Latin alphabet did not distinguish between the vowel and consonant sounds of i and u, but used each letter (I and V) with a double value. In modern books i and u are often used for the vowel sounds, j and v for the consonant sounds; but in printing in capitals J and U are avoided:—IVLIVS (Iūlius). The characters J and U are only slight modifications of the characters I and V. The ordinary English sounds of j and v did not exist in classical Latin, but consonant u perhaps approached English v in the pronunciation of some persons.

NOTE 2. — In the combinations qu, gu, and sometimes su, u seems to be the consonant (w). Thus, aqua, anguis, consuctus (compare English quart, anguish, suave). In these combinations, however, u is reckoned neither as a vowel nor as a consonant.²

ORTHOGRAPHY

6. Latin spelling varied somewhat with the changes in the language and was never absolutely settled in all details.

Thus, we find lubet, vorto, as earlier, and libet, verto, as later forms. Other variations are optumus and optimus, gerundus and gerendus.

The spelling of the first century of our era, known chiefly from inscriptions, is tolerably uniform, and is commonly used in modern editions of the classics.

- a. After v (consonant u), o was anciently used instead of u (voltus, servos), and this spelling was not entirely given up until the middle of the first century of our era.
- b. The older quo became cu in the Augustan period; in the second century of our era the spelling quu established itself in some words:—

cum, older quom; sequos, ecus, later equus; sequontur, secuntur, later sequuntur; similarly exstinguont, exstingunt, later exstingunt.

Note. — In most modern editions the spelling quu is adopted, except in cum.

- c. Between consonant i and a preceding a, e, o, or u, an i was developed as a transient sound, thus producing a diphthong ai, ei, etc., before the consonant i. In such cases but one i was written: as, âiō (for †ai-iō), mâius (for †mai-ius), pêius (for †pei-ius).
 - 1 Compare the English word Indian as pronounced in two syllables or in three.
- ² In such words it is possible that the preceding consonant was labialized and that no distinct and separate consonant u was heard.
 - The spelling quum is very late and without authority.

d. Similarly in compounds of iacio but one i was written (as, con-icio, not con-iicio); but the usual pronunciation probably showed consonant i followed by vowel i (see § 11. e).

Note. — Some variations are due to later changes in Latin itself, and these are not now recognized in classical texts.

- 1. Unaccented ti and ci, when followed by a vowel, came to be pronounced alike; hence nuntion was later spelled with a c and dicion with a t.
- 2. The sound of h was after a time lost and hence this letter was often omitted (as, arena for harena) or mistakenly written (as, hūmor for ūmor).
- 3. The diphthong ac early in the time of the Empire acquired the value of long open c (about like English e in there), and similarly oc after a time became a long close c (about like the English ey in they); and so both were often confused in spelling with c: as, ceens or caens for the correct form cens.

Syllables

7. Every Latin word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs:—

a-ci-ē, mo-nē, fī-li-us, fe-rō-ci-tā-te.

a. In the division of words into syllables a single consonant (including consonant i and v) between two vowels is written and pronounced with the following vowel. Doubled consonants are separated:—

pa-ter, mī-li-tēs, in-iū-ri-a, dī-vi-dō; mit-tō, tol-lō.

Note 1.—Some extend the rule for single consonants to any consonant group (as sp, st, gn) that can begin a word. In this book, dīx-it, sax-um, etc. are preferred to dī-xit, sa-xum; the pronunciation was probably dīc-sit, sac-sum.

NOTE 2.—A syllable ending with a vowel or diphthong is called open: all others are called close. Thus in pa-ter the first syllable is open, the second close.

b. In compounds the parts are separated:—
ab-est, ob-lātus, dis-cernō, du-plex, dī-stō.

Pronunciation

8. The so-called Roman Pronunciation of Latin aims to represent approximately the pronunciation of classical times.

Vowels: a as in father;
a as in idea.

a as eh? (prolonged), or a in date;
b as eh? (clipped) or e in net.
b as in machine;
b as in holiest or sit.
b as in holy;
b as in obey.
b as oo in foot.

y between u and i (French u or German ü).

DIPHTHONGS: ae like ay; ei as in eight; oe like oy in boy; eu as eh'oo; au like ow in now; ui as on'ee.

Consonants are the same as in English, except that —

- c and g are as in come, get, never as in city, gem.
- s as in sea, lips, never as in ease.

Consonant i is like y in young; v (consonant u) like w in wing.

- n in the combinations ns and nf probably indicates nasalization of the preceding vowel, which was also lengthened; and final m in an unaccented syllable probably had a similar nasalizing effect on the preceding vowel.
- ph, th, ch, are properly like p, t, k, followed by h (which may, for convenience, be neglected); but ph probably became like (or nearly like) f soon after the classical period, and may be so pronounced to distinguish it from p.

z is as dz in adze.

bs is like ps; bt is like pt.

Note.—Latin is sometimes pronounced with the ordinary English sounds of the letters. The English pronunciation should be used in Roman names occurring in English (as, Julius Cæsar); and in familiar quotations, as, e pluribus unum; viva voce; vice versa; a fortiori; veni, vidi, vici, etc.

Quantity

- 9. The Quantity of a Vowel or a Syllable is the time occupied in pronouncing it. Two degrees of Quantity are recognized, long and short.
- a. In syllables, quantity is measured from the beginning of the vowel or diphthong to the end of the syllable.
- 10. Vowels are either long or short by nature, and are pronounced accordingly (§ 8).
 - a. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as in via, nihil.
- **b.** A diphthong is long: as in **āēdēs**, fōēdus. So, also, a vowel derived from a diphthong: as in **exclūdō** (from †ex-claudō).
 - c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as in nil (from nihil).
 - d. A vowel before ns, nf, gn, is long: as in constans, infero, magnus.

NOTE. — But the quantity of the vowel before gn is not certain in all cases.

e. A vowel before nd, nt, is regularly short: as in amandus, amant.

In this book all vowels known to be long are marked (ā, ē, etc.), and short vowels are left unmarked (a, e, etc.). Vowels marked with both signs at once (ă, ĕ, etc.) occur sometimes as long and sometimes as short.

Note. — The Romans sometimes marked vowel length by a stroke above the letter (called an apex), as, A; and sometimes the vowel was doubled to indicate length. An I made higher than the other letters was occasionally used for i. But none of these devices came into general use.

- 11. The Quantity of the Syllable is important for the position of the accent and in versification.
- a. A syllable containing a long vowel or a diphthong is said to be long by nature: as, mā-ter, aes, au-la.
- b. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (except a mute before 1 or r) or by a double consonant (x, z) is said to be long by position, but the vowel is pronounced short: as, est, ter-ra, sax-um, Me-zen-tius.
- Note. When a consonant is doubled the pronunciation should show this distinctly. Thus in mit-to both t's should be pronounced as in *out-talk* (not merely a single t as in *better*).
- c. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by a mute before 1 or r is properly short, but may be used as long in verse. Such a syllable is said to be common.
- NOTE 1.—In syllables long by position, but having a short vowel, the length is partly due to the first of the consonants, which stands in the same syllable with the vowel. In syllables of "common" quantity (as the first syllable of patrem) the ordinary pronunciation was pa-trem, but in verse pat-rem was allowed so that the syllable could become long.
- NOTE 2.—In final syllables ending with a consonant, and containing a short vowel, the quantity in verse is determined by the following word: if this begins with a vowel the final consonant is joined to it in pronunciation; if it begins with a consonant the syllable is long by position.
- NOTE 3. In rules for quantity h is not counted as a consonant, nor is the apparently consonantal u in qu, gu, su (see § 5. N. 2).
- d. A syllable whose vowel is a, e, o, or u, followed by consonant i, is long whether the vowel itself is long or short: as, â-iō, mâ-ior, pê-ius.

In such cases the length of the syllable is indicated in this book by a circumflex on the vowel.

- Note. The length of a syllable before consonant i is due to a transitional sound (vowel i) which forms a diphthong with the preceding vowel: as, â-iō (for †ai-iō), mâ-ior (for †mai-ior). See § 6. c.
- e. In some compounds of iaciō (as, in-iciō) the consonant i of the simple verb was probably pronounced (though not written). Thus the first syllable was long by position: as, in-iciō (for in-iiciō). See § 6. d.

In such cases the length of the syllable is not indicated in this book by a circumflex on the vowel.

f. When a syllable is long by position the quantity of the vowel is not always determinable. The vowel should be pronounced short unless it is known to be long.

Note. — The quantity of a vowel under these circumstances is said to be hidden. It is often determined with a greater or less degree of certainty by inscriptional evidence (see § 10. N.) or by other means. In this book, the quantity of all such vowels known to be long is marked.

Accent

12. Words of two syllables are accented on the first syllable: as, Rō'ma, fi'dēs, tan'gō.

Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult 1 if that is long (as, amī'cus, monē'tur, contin'git); otherwise on the Antepenult (as, do'mīnus, a'lăcris, dissociā'bīlis).

a. When an enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, dex que, amare ve, tibi ne, it que (and . . . so), as distinguished from i taque (therefore). So (according to some) ex inde, ec quando, etc.

Exceptions: 1. Certain apparent compounds of facio retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefă'cit, calefă'cit (see § 266. a).

Note. — These were not true compounds, but phrases.

- 2. In the second declension the genitive and vocative of nouns in -ius and the genitive of those in -ium retain the accent of the nominative: as, Cornē'lī, Vergi'lī, inge'nī (see § 49. c).
- 3. Certain words which have lost a final vowel retain the accent of the complete words: as, illi'c for illi'ce, produ'c for produce, sati'n for sati'sne.

Combinations

13. In some cases adjacent words, being pronounced together, are written as one:—

ūnusquisque (ūnus quisque), sīquis (sī quis), quārē (quā rē), quamobrem (quam ob rem; cf. quās ob rēs), rēspūblica (rēs pūblica), iūsiūrandum (iūs iūrandum), paterfamiliās (pater familiās).

Note. — Sometimes a slight change in pronunciation resulted, as, especially in the old poets, before est in homost (homo est), periculumst (periculum est), ausust (ausus est), qualist (qualis est). Similarly there occur vin', scin' for visne, scisne, sis (si vis), sodes (si audes), sultis (si vultis). Compare in English somebody, to breakfast; he's, I've, thou'rt.

Phonetic Changes

14. Latin, the language of the ancient Romans, was properly, as its name implies, the language spoken in the plain of Latium, lying south of the Tiber, which was the first territory occupied and governed by the Romans. It is a descendant of an early form of speech commonly called *Indo-European* (by some *Indo-Germanic*), from which are also descended most of the important languages now in use in Europe, including among others English, German, the Slavic and the Celtic languages, and further some now or formerly spoken in Asia, as Sanskrit, Persian, Armenian. Greek likewise

¹ The Penult is the last syllable but one; the Antepenult, the last but two.

belongs to the same family. The Romance (or Romanic) languages, of which the most important are Italian, French, Provençal, Spanish, Portuguese, and Roumanian, are modern descendants of spoken Latin.

The earliest known forms of Latin are preserved in a few inscriptions. These increase in number as we approach the time when the language began to be used in literature; that is, about B.C. 250. It is the comparatively stable language of the classical period (B.C. 80-A.D. 14) that is ordinarily meant when we speak of Latin, and it is mainly this that is described in this book.

15. Among the main features in the changes of Latin from the earliest stages of the language as we know it up to the forms of classical Latin may be mentioned the following:—

Vowel Changes

- 1. The old diphthong ai became the classical ae (aedīlis for old aidīlis), old oi became oe or ū (ūnus for old oinos), and old ou became ū (dūcō for old doucō).
- 2. In compound verbs the vowel a of the simple verb often appears as i or e, and ae similarly appears as i:
 - facio, factum, but conficio, confectum; caedo, but occido, and similarly cecidi, perfect of caedo (cf. cado, occido; cecidi, perfect of cado).

Note. — This change is commonly ascribed to an accentuation on the first syllable, which seems to have been the rule in Latin before the rule given above (see § 12) became established. The original Indo-European accent, however, was not limited by either of these principles; it was probably a musical accent so-called, consisting in a change of pitch, and not merely in a more forcible utterance of the accented syllable.

3. Two vowels coming together are often contracted:—

cogo for †co-ago; promo for †pro-emo; nil for nihil; debeo for †de-hibeo (†de-habeo).

Consonant Changes

4. An old s regularly became r between two vowels (*rhotacism*), passing first through the sound of (English) z:—

eram (cf. est); generis, genitive of genus.1

Note. — Final s sometimes became r by analogy: as, honor (older honos), from the analogy of honoris, etc.

- 5. A dental (t, d) often became s, especially when standing next to t, d, or s: as, equestris for †equettris, casus for †cadtus (cf. 6, below).
 - 6. Many instances of assimilation, partial or complete, are found:—
 cessī for †ced-sī; summus for †supmus; scrīptus for scrībtus (b unvoicing to
 p before the voiceless t); and in compound verbs (see § 16).
 - 1 A similar change can be seen in English: as, were (cf. was), lorn (cf. lose).

Dissimilation, the opposite kind of change, prevented in some cases the repetition of the same sound in successive syllables:—

Thus, parīlia for palīlia (from Palēs); merīdiēs for †medīdiēs; nātūrālis with suffix -ālis (after r), but populāris with -āris (after 1).

- 7. Final s was in early Latin not always pronounced: as, plēnu(s) fidēi.

 Note.—Traces of this pronunciation existed in Cicero's time. He speaks of the omission of final s before a word beginning with a consonant as "countrified" (subrūsticum).
- 8. A final consonant often disappears: as, virgo for †virgon; lac for †lact; cor for †cord.
- 9. G, c, and h unite with a following s to form x: as, rex for †regs; dux for †ducs; traxī for †trahsī.1
- 10. Gand h before t become c: as, rectum for †regtum; actum for †agtum; tractum for †trahtum.²
- 11. Between m and s or m and t, a p is often developed: as, sumpsi for †sumsi; ēmptum for †ēmtum.
- 16. In compounds with prepositions the final consonant in the preposition was often assimilated to the following consonant, but usage varied considerably.

There is good authority for many complete or partial assimilations; as, for ad, acc-, agg-, app-, att-, instead of adc-, adg-, etc. Before a labial consonant we find com-(comb-, comp-, comm-), but con- is the form before c, d, f, g, cons. i, q, s, t, cons. v; we find conl- or coll-, conr- or corr-; co- in conecto, coniveo, conitor, conubium. In usually changes to im- before p, b, m. Ob and sub may assimilate b to a following c, f, g, or p; before s and t the pronunciation of prepositions ending in b doubtless had p; surr-, summ-, occur for subr-, subm-. The inseparable amb- loses b before a consonant. Circum often loses its m before i. The s of dis becomes r before a vowel and is assimilated to a following f; sometimes this prefix appears as di-. Instead of ex we find efbefore f (also ecf-). The d of red and sed is generally lost before a consonant. The preposition is better left unchanged in most other cases.

Vowel Variations

- 17. The parent language showed great variation in the vowel sounds of kindred words.⁸
- a. This variation is often called by the German name Ablaut. It has left considerable traces in the forms of Latin words, appearing sometimes as a difference of quantity in the same vowel (as, u, \bar{u} ; e, \bar{e}), sometimes as a difference in the vowel itself (as, e, o; i, ae): 4
 - tegō, I cover, toga, a robe; pendō, I weigh, pondus, weight; fidēs, faith, fīdus, faithful, foedus, a treaty; miser, wretched, maestus, sad; dare, to give, dōnum, a gift; regō, I rule, rēx, a king; dux, a leader, dūcō (for older doucō), I lead. Compare English drive, drove (drave), driven; bind, bound, band; sing, sang, sung; etc.
 - 1 Really for †traghsī. The h of trahō represents an older palatal sound (see § 19).
 - ² Really for †traghtum. These are cases of partial assimilation (cf. 6, above).
 - 3 This variation was not without regularity, but was confined within definite limits.
 - 4 In Greek, however, it is more extensively preserved.

Kindred Forms

- 18. Both Latin and English have gone through a series of phonetic changes, different in the two languages, but following definite laws in each. Hence both preserve traces of the older speech in some features of the vowel system, and both show certain correspondences in consonants in words which each language has inherited from the old common stock. Only a few of these correspondences can be mentioned here.
- 19. The most important correspondences in consonants between Latin and English, in cognate words, may be seen in the following table: 1

```
LATIN
                                                      ENGLISH
                                             f: father, earlier fader 2
p: pater
                                             b: to bear, brother
f from bh: fero, frater
                                             v, f: love, lief
            lubet, libet
                                             th: thou, thin 8
t: tū, tenuis
                                             t: two, tooth
d: duo, dent-
f from dh: facio
                                             \mathbf{d}: do
            medius
                                             \mathbf{d}: mid
   "
        "
            ruber
                                             d: red
                                             h: heart, horn
c: cord-, cornū
                                             wh: what
qu: quod
                                             c, k, ch: kin, choose
g: genus, gustus
h (from gh): hortus, haedus
                                             y, g: yard, goat
                                             y: yoke
cons. i: iugum
v: ventus, ovis
                                             w: wind, ewe
v from gv: vīvus (for †gvīvos), }
                                             qu, c, k: quick, come
  veniō (for †gvemiō).
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Note 1. — Sometimes a consonant lost in Latin is still represented in English: as, niv- (for †sniv-), Eng. snow; anser (for †hanser), Eng. goose.

NOTE 2.—From these cases of kindred words in Latin and English must be carefully distinguished those cases in which the Latin word has been taken into English either directly or through some one of the modern descendants of Latin, especially French. Thus facio is kindred with Eng. do, but from the Latin participle (factum) of this verb comes Eng. fact, and from the French descendant (fait) of factum comes Eng. feat.

¹ The Indo-European parent speech had among its consonants voiced aspirates (bh, dh, gh). All these suffered change in Latin, the most important results being, for bh, Latin f, b (English has b, v, or f); for dh, Latin f, b, d (English has d); for gh, Latin h, g (English has y, g). The other mutes suffered in Latin much less change, while in English, as in the other Germanic languages, they have all changed considerably in accordance with what has been called Grimm's Law for the shifting of mutes.

² The th in father is a late development. The older form fader seems to show an exception to the rule that English th corresponds to Latin t. The primitive Germanic form was doubtless in accordance with this rule, but, on account of the position of the accent, which in Germanic was not originally on the first syllable in this word, the consonant underwent a secondary change to d.

8 But to the group st of Latin corresponds also English st; as in Latin stö, English stand.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

- 20. Words are divided into eight Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives (including Participles), Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.
- a. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea: as, Caesar; Rōma, Rome; domus, a house; virtūs, virtue.

Names of particular persons and places are called Proper Nouns; other nouns are called Common.

- Note. An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality or idea: as, audācia, boldness; senectūs, old age. A Collective Noun is the name of a group, class, or the like: as, turba, crowd; exercitus, army.
- b. An Adjective is a word that attributes a quality: as, bonus, good; fortis, brave, strong.
- Note 1.—A Participle is a word that attributes quality like an adjective, but, being derived from a verb, retains in some degree the power of the verb to assert: as,—Caesar consul creatus, Cæsar having been elected consul.
- Note 2.—Etymologically there is no difference between a noun and an adjective, both being formed alike. So, too, all names originally attribute quality, and any common name can still be so used. Thus, King William distinguishes this William from other Williams, by the attribute of royalty expressed in the name king.
- c. A Pronoun is a word used to distinguish a person, place, thing, or idea without either naming or describing it: as, is, he; qui, who; nos, we.

Nouns and pronouns are often called Substantives.

- d. A Verb is a word which is capable of asserting something: as, sum, I am; amat, he loves.
- Note.—In all modern speech the verb is usually the only word that asserts anything, and a verb is therefore supposed to be necessary to complete an assertion. Strictly, however, any adjective or noun may, by attributing a quality or giving a name, make a complete assertion. In the infancy of language there could have been no other means of asserting, as the verb is of comparatively late development.
- e. An Adverb is a word used to express the time, place, or manner of an assertion or attribute: as, splendidē mendāx, gloriously false; hodiē nātus est, he was born to-day.
- NOTE.—These same functions are often performed by cases (see §§ 214-217) of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and by phrases or sentences. In fact, all adverbs were originally cases or phrases, but have become specialized by use.
- f. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word or words in the same sentence: as, per agros it, he goes over the fields: ē plūribus ūnum, one out of many.
- Note.—Most prepositions are specialized adverbs (cf. § 219). The relations expressed by prepositions were earlier expressed by case-endings.

- g. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, or groups of words, without affecting their grammatical relations: as, et, and; sed, but.
- Note. Some adverbs are also used as connectives. These are called Adverbial Conjunctions or Conjunctive (Relative) Adverbs: as, ubi, where; donec, until.
- h. Interjections are mere exclamations and are not strictly to be classed as parts of speech. Thus, heus, halloo! ō, oh!

Note. — Interjections sometimes express an emotion which affects a person or thing mentioned, and so have a grammatical connection like other words: as, vac victis, woe to the conquered (alas for the conquered)!

INFLECTION

21. Latin is an inflected language.

Inflection is a change made in the form of a word to show its grammatical relations.

- a. Inflectional changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination:
 - vox, a voice; vocis, of a voice; voco, I call; vocat, he calls; vocet, let him call; vocavit, he has called; tangit, he touches; tetigit, he touched.
- b. Terminations of inflection had originally independent meanings which are now obscured. They correspond nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries, and personal pronouns in English.

Thus, in vocat, the termination is equivalent to he or she; in vocis, to the preposition of; and in vocet the change of vowel signifies a change of mood.

c. Inflectional changes in the body of a verb usually denote relations of tense or mood, and often correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English:—

frangit, he breaks or is breaking; frēgit, he broke or has broken; mordet, he bites; momordit, he bit.1

22. The inflection of Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles to denote gender, number, and case is called Declension, and these parts of speech are said to be declined.

The inflection of Verbs to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person is called Conjugation, and the verb is said to be conjugated.

Note. — Adjectives are often said to have inflections of comparison. These are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivation (p. 55, footnote).

¹ The only *proper* inflections of verbs are those of the personal endings; and the changes here referred to are strictly changes of *stem*, but have become a part of the system of inflections.

23. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are not inflected and are called Particles.

NOTE. — The term Particle is sometimes limited to such words as num, -ne, an (interrogative), non, ne (negative), sī (conditional), etc., which are used simply to indicate the form or construction of a sentence.

Root, Stem, and Base

24. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the Stem.

The Stem contains the *idea* of the word without relations; but, except in the first part of a compound (as, arti-fex, artificer), it cannot ordinarily be used without some termination to express them.¹

Thus the stem voc-denotes voice; with -s added it becomes vox, a voice or the voice, as the subject or agent of an action; with -is it becomes vocis, and signifies of a voice.

Note.—The stem is in many forms so united with the termination that a comparison with other forms is necessary to determine it.

25. A Root is the simplest form attainable by analysis of a word into its component parts.

Such a form contains the main idea of the word in a very general sense, and is common also to other words either in the same language or in kindred languages.²

Thus the root of the stem voc- is voc, which does not mean to call, or I call, or calling, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of calling, and cannot be used as a part of speech without terminations. With ā- it becomes vocā-, the stem of vocāre (to call); with āv- it is the stem of vocāvit (he called); with āto- it becomes the stem of vocātionis (of a calling). With its vowel lengthened it becomes the stem of vox, voc-is (a voice: that by which we call). This stem voc-, with -ālis added, means belonging to a voice; with -ăla, a little voice.

Note.—In inflected languages, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time were used alone to express ideas, as is now done in Chinese. Roots are modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become fully formed words. The process by which roots are modified, in the various forms of derivatives and compounds, is called Stem-building. The whole of this process is originally one of composition, by which significant endings are added one after another to forms capable of pronunciation and conveying a meaning.

Roots had long ceased to be recognized as such before the Latin existed as a separate language. Consequently the forms which we assume as Latin roots never really existed in Latin, but are the representatives of forms used earlier.

1 Another exception is the imperative second person singular in -e (as, rege).

² For example, the root sta is found in the Sanskrit tishthāmi, Greek toτημι, Latin sistere and stāre, German stehen, and English stand.

- 26. The Stem may be the same as the root: as induc-is, of a leader, fer-t, he bears; but it is more frequently formed from the root—
- 1. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in scob-s, sawdust (SCAB, shave); reg-is, of a king (REG, direct); vcc-is, of a voice (voc, call).
- 2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in fugā, stem of fuga, flight (FUG + ā-); regi-s, you rule (REG + stem-ending $^{e}/_{0}$ -); sini-t, he allows (SI + $^{e}/_{0}$ -).
- 3. By two or more of these methods: as in duci-t, he leads (DUC + stemending e_0^-).
- 4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See §§ 227 ff.)
- 27. The Base is that part of a word which is unchanged in inflection: as, serv- in servus; mēns- in mēnsa; īgn- in īgnis.
- a. The Base and the Stem are often identical, as in many consonant stems of nouns (as, reg- in reg-is). If, however, the stem ends in a vowel, the latter does not appear in the base, but is variously combined with the inflectional termination. Thus the stem of servus is servo-; that of mensa, mensa-; that of ignis, igni-.
- 28. Inflectional terminations are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, and thus the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see §§ 36, 164) developed.

GENDER

- 29. The Genders distinguished in Latin are three: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
 - 30. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.
- a. Natural Gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, puer (M.), boy; puella (F.), girl; rex (M.), king; regina (F.), queen.

Note 1.—Many nouns have both a masculine and a feminine form to distinguish sex: as, cervus, cerva, stag, doe; cliëns, clienta, client; victor, victrix, conqueror.

Many designations of persons (as nauta, sailor) usually though not necessarily male are always treated as masculine. Similarly names of tribes and peoples are masculine: as, Rōmānī, the Romans; Persae, the Persians.

Note 2.—A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: as, mancipium tuum, your slave (your chattel).

Many pet names of girls and boys are neuter in form: as, Paegnium, Glycerium.

NOTE 3.— Names of classes or collections of persons may be of any gender: as, exercitus (M.), aciës (F.), and agmen (N.), army; operae (F. plur.), workmen; copiae (F. plur.), troops; senatus (M.), senate; cohors (F.), cohort; concilium (N.), council.

¹ These suffixes are Indo-European stem-endings.

b. Grammatical Gender is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It is shown by the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, lapis māgnus (M.), a great stone; manus mea (F.), my hand.

General Rules of Gender

31. Names of Male beings, and of Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are masculine:—

pater, father; Iūlius, Julius; Tiberis, the Tiber; auster, south wind; Iānuārius, January; Apennīnus, the Apennines.

Note.—Names of Months are properly adjectives, the masculine noun mensis, month, being understood: as, Ianuarius, January.

- a. A few names of Rivers ending in -a (as, Allia), with the Greek names Lēthē and Styx, are feminine; others are variable or uncertain.
- b. Some names of Mountains are feminine or neuter, taking the gender of their termination: as, Alpes (f.), the Alps; Soracte (N.).
- 32. Names of Female beings, of Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine:
 - māter, mother; Iūlia, Julia; Rōma, Rome; Ītalia, Italy; rosa, rose; pīnus, pine; sapphīrus, sapphire; anas, duck; vēritās, truth.
- a. Some names of Towns and Countries are masculine: as, Sulmo, Gabii (plur.); or neuter, as, Tarentum, Illyricum.
- b. A few names of Plants and Gems follow the gender of their termination: as, centaureum (N.), centaury; acanthus (M.), bearsfoot; opalus (M.), opal.
- Note. The gender of most of the above may also be recognized by the terminations, according to the rules given under the several declensions. The names of Roman women were usually feminine adjectives denoting their gens or house (see § 108. b).
- 33. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, terms or phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their form, are neuter:
 - fās, right; nihil, nothing; gummī, gum; scīre tuum, your knowledge (to know); trīste valē, a sad farewell; hōc ipsum diū, this very "long."
- 34. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, exsul, exile; bos, ox or cow; parens, parent.

Note. — Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called *epicene*. Thus lepus, *hare*, is always masculine, and vulpēs, *fox*, is always feminine.

NUMBER AND CASE

- 35. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles are declined in two Numbers, singular and plural; and in six Cases, nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative, vocative.
 - a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.
- b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition of.
- c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (§ 274). It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition to or for.
- d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb (§ 274). It is used also with many of the prepositions.
- e. The Ablative may usually be translated by the Objective with from, by, with, in, or at. It is often used with prepositions.
 - f. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.
- g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, are used as object-cases; and are sometimes called Oblique Cases (cāsūs oblīquī).
- h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where: as, Romae, at Rome; rūrī, in the country.

Note. — Still another case, the Instrumental, appears in a few adverbs (§ 215. 4).

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

36. Declension is produced by adding terminations originally significant to different forms of stems, vowel or consonant. The various phonetic corruptions in the language have given rise to the several declensions. Most of the case-endings, as given in Latin, contain also the final letter of the stem.

Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them; but they have several peculiarities of inflection (see § 109 ff.).

37. Nouns are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the final letter (*characteristic*) of the Stem, and by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular.

DECL. 1	CHARACTERISTIC	ā	GEN. SING.	ae
2		ŏ		ī
3		I or a Consonant		ĭs
4		ŭ		ūs
5		ĕ		ēī

a. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.

38. The following are General Rules of Declension:—

- a. The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives in -us of the second declension, which have -e in the vocative. It is not included in the paradigms, unless it differs from the nominative.
- b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in -ă.
- c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in -m; the Accusative plural in -s.
- d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in -ī.
 - e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.
 - f. The Genitive plural always ends in -um.
- g. Final -i, -o, -u of inflection are always long; final -a is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final -e is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third. Final -is and -us are long in plural cases.

Case-endings of the Five Declensions

39. The regular Case-endings of the several declensions are the following:—1

DECL. I DECL. II		DECL. III		DECL. IV		DECL. V		
				Sing	ULAR			
	F.	M.	N.	M.,F.	N.	M.	N.	F.
Mass	_	-us	-um	-6		-us	- ā	-ēs
Non.	~61		-	(modifie	d stem)			
GEN.	-ae	` -{	ľ	-is		- ūs		-ēī (-ē)
DAT.	-ae	-	5	- I		-u ī (-ū)	-ū	•
Acc.	-am	-um	-um	-em (-im) (like nom.)		-um	- ū	-em
ABL.	-ā	-	δ	-e (-I)		-ū		- 5
Voc.	-a	-e	-um	(like 1	nom.)	- us	- ü	-ēs
				Pro	JRAL			
N.V.	-ae	-ī	-a	-ēs	-a, -ia	-ūs	-ua	-ēs
GEN.	-ārum	-ōru	ım	-um, -ium		-uum		-ērum
D.AB.	- īs	-16	3	-ibus		-ibus (-ubus)		-ēbus
Acc.	-ās	-Ōs	-a	-ēs (-īs)	-a, -ia	-ūs	-ua	-ēs

¹ For ancient, rare, and Greek forms (which are here omitted), see under the several declensions.

FIRST DECLENSION (a-STEMS)

- 40. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in a. The Nominative ending is -a (the stem-vowel shortened), except in Greek nouns.
 - 41. Latin nouns of the First Declension are thus declined: —

stella, f., star Stem stellä-

		SINGULAR	CASE-ENDINGS
Nom.	stella	a star	-a
GEN.	stellae	of a star	-ae
DAT.	stellae	to or for a star	-ae
Acc.	stellam	a star	-am
ABL.	stellā	with, from, by, etc. a star	-ā
		Plural	
Nom.	stella e	stars	-ae
GEN.	stellärum	of stars	-ārum
DAT.	s tell īs	to or for stars	- īs
Acc.	stell ās	stars	-ās
ABL.	stell īs	with, from, by, etc. stars	- īs

a. The Latin has no article; hence stella may mean a star, the star, or simply star.

Gender in the First Declension

42. Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

Exceptions: Nouns masculine from their signification: as, nauta, sailor. So a few family or personal names: as, Mūrēna, Dolābella, Scaevola¹; also, Hadria, the Adriatic.

Case-Forms in the First Declension

43. a. The genitive singular anciently ended in -āī (dissyllabic), which is occasionally found: as, aulāī. The same ending sometimes occurs in the dative, but only as a diphthong.

¹ Scaevola is really a feminine adjective, used as a noun, meaning little left hand; but, being used as the name of a man (originally a nickname), it became masculine. Original genders are often thus changed by a change in the sense of a noun.

- b. An old genitive in -ās is preserved in the word familiās, often used in the combinations pater (māter, fīlius, fīlia) familiās, father, etc., of a family (plur. patrēs familiās or familiārum).
- c. The Locative form for the singular ends in -ae; for the plural in -is (cf. p. 34, footnote): as, Rōmae, at Rome; Athēnis, at Athens.
- d. The genitive plural is sometimes found in -um instead of -ārum, especially in Greek patronymics, as, Aeneadum, sons of Æneas, and in compounds with -cŏla and -gĕna, signifying dwelling and descent: as, caelicolum, celestials; Trōiugenum, sons of Troy; so also in the Greek nouns amphora and drachma.
- e. The dative and ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, end in an older form -ābus (deābus, fīliābus) to distinguish them from the corresponding cases of deus, god, and fīlius, son (deīs, fīliīs). So rarely with other words, as, līberta, freed-woman; mūla, she-mule; equa, mare. But, except when the two sexes are mentioned together (as in formulas, documents, etc.), the form in -īs is preferred in all but dea and fīlia.

Note 1.—The old ending of the ablative singular (-ad) is sometimes retained in early Latin: as, praidad, booty (later, praeda).

Note 2.— In the dative and ablative plural -eis for -īs is sometimes found, and -iīs (as in taeniīs) is occasionally contracted to -īs (taenīs); so regularly in words in -āia (as, Bāīs from Bāiae).

Greek Nouns of the First Declension

44. Many nouns of the First Declension borrowed from the Greek are entirely Latinized (as, aula, court); but others retain traces of their Greek case-forms in the singular.

	Electra, F.	synopsis, F.	art of music, F.
Nom.	Ēlectra (-ā)	epitom ē	mūsic a (-ē)
GEN.	Electrae	epitom ēs	mūsic ae (-ēs)
DAT.	\mathbf{E} lectrae	epitom ae	mūsic ae
Acc.	Ēlectram (-ān)	epitom ēn	mūsicam (-ēn)
ABL.	Electra	epitom ē	mūsicā (-ē)
	Andromache, F.	Æneas, M.	Persian, M.
Nom.	Andromachē (-a)	A enē ās	Persēs (-a)
GEN.	Andromachēs (-ae)	Aenē ae	Persae
DAT.	Andromachae	Aenē ae	Persae _
Acc.	Andromach ēn (-am)	Aenē ān (-am)	Pers ēn (-am)
ABL.	Andromachē (-ā)	Aenē ā	Persē (-ā)
Voc.	Andromachē (-a)	Aenēā (-a)	Persa

	Anchises, M.	son of Eneas, M.	comet, M.
Nom.	Anchīs ēs	Aeneadēs (-a)	comēt ēs (-a)
GEN.	Anchīs ae	Aeneadae	comētae
DAT.	Anchīs ae	A enead ae	comēt ae
Acc.	Anchīs ēn (-am)	Aene adēn	comēt ēn (-am)
ABL.	Anchīsē (-ā)	Aeneadē (-ā)	comētā (-ē)
Voc.	Anchīs ē (- ā , -a)	Aeneadē (-a)	comēta

There are (besides proper names) about thirty-five of these words, several being names of plants or arts: as, crambē, cabbage; mūsicē, music. Most have also regular Latin forms: as, comēta; but the nominative sometimes has the a long.

- a. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural, when it occurs, is regular: as, cometae, -arum, etc.
- b. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: as, Bootae (genitive of Bootes, -is), Thucydidas (accusative plural of Thucydides, -is). See § 52. a and § 81.

Note. — The Greek accusative Scipiadam, from Scipiades, descendant of the Scipios, is found in Horace.

SECOND DECLENSION (O-STEMS)

- 45. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in δ -: as, viro- (stem of vir, man), servo- (stem of servus or servos, slave), bello- (stem of bellum, war).
- a. The Nominative is formed from the stem by adding s in masculines and feminines, and m in neuters, the vowel δ being weakened to \tilde{u} (see §§ 6. a, 46. N.¹).
- **b.** In most nouns whose stem ends in ro- the s is not added in the Nominative, but o is lost, and e intrudes before r, if not already present: as, ager, stem agro-2; cf. puer, stem puero-.

Exceptions: erus, hesperus, iūniperus, mōrus, numerus, taurus, umerus, uterus, virus, and many Greek nouns.

c. The stem-vowel of has a variant form e, which is preserved in the Latin vocative singular of nouns in -us: as, serve, vocative of servus, slave.

NOTE. — In composition this δ appears as 1. Thus, — belli-ger, warlike (from bello-, stem of bellum, war).

- 46. Nouns of the Second Declension in -us (-os) and -um (-om) are thus declined:—
 - ¹ Compare the English chamber from French chambre.
 - ² Compare Greek $d\gamma\rho\delta_5$, which shows the original o of the stem.
 - 8 By so-called Ablaut (see § 17. a).

	STEM SERVO-		lum, n., war Stem bello-		ius, м., <i>Pompey</i> ем Pomp ê io-
		Sinc	ULAR		
		CASE-ENDINGS	CA	SE-ENDINGS	
Non.	servus (-os)	-us (-os)	bell um	-um	Pompêius
GEN.	servī	- I	bell ī	-I	Pompê ï
DAT.	serv o .	- ō	bell ö	- 5	Pompêi ō
Acc.	servum (-om)	-um (-om)	\mathbf{bellum}	-um	Pompêi um
ABL.	servō	- 5 .	bell ō	- 5	Pompêi ō
Voc.	serve	-e	bell um	-um	Pompêī (-6î)
		PLI	JRAL		
Nom.	servī	- T	bell a	-a	Pompê ī
GEN.	serv ōrum	-ōrum	bell örum	-ōrum	Pompêi ōrum
DAT.	serv is	- īs	bell īs	- īs	Pompê is
Acc.	serv ōs	-ōs	bell a	-a	Pompêi ōs
ABL.	serv īs	- īs	bell īs	-īs	Pompê is

NOTE 1.—The earlier forms for nominative and accusative were -os, -om, and these were always retained after u and v up to the end of the Republic. The terminations s and m are sometimes omitted in inscriptions: as, Cornēlio for Cornēlios, Cornēliom.

Note 2.—Stems in quo-, like equo-, change qu to c before u. Thus,—ecus (earlier equos), equi, equo, ecum (earlier equom), eque. Modern editions disregard this principle.

47. Nouns of the Second Declension in -er and -ir are thus declined: —

	puer, m., boy Stem puero-	ager, m., field Stem agro-	vir, m., man Stem viro-	
		SINGULAR		CASE-ENDINGS
Nom.	puer	ager	vir	
GEN.	puer ī	agr ī	virī	-1
DAT.	puer ō	agrō	v ir ō	- ō
Acc.	puer um	agrum	virum	-um
ABL.	pue rō	a gr ō	virō	-5
		PLURAL		
Nom.	puer ī	agrī	vir ī	-ī
GEN.	puer ōrum	agrörum	vir ōrum	-ōrum
DAT.	puer is	agr is	vir īs	-īs
Acc.	puer ōs	agrōs	virōs	-ōs
ABL.	pueris	agrīs	vir īs	-is

Note. — When e belongs to the stem, as in puer, it is retained throughout; otherwise it appears only in the nominative and vocative singular, as in ager.

Gender in the Second Declension

48. Nouns ending in -us (-os), -er, -ir, are Masculine; those ending in -um (-on) are Neuter.

Exceptions: Names of countries and towns in -us (-os) are Feminine: as, Aegyptus, Corinthus. Also many names of plants and gems, with the following: alvus, belly; carbasus, linen (pl. carbasa, sails, n.); colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, winnowing-shovel.

Many Greek nouns retain their original gender: as, arctus (f.), the Polar Bear; methodus (f.), method.

a. The following in -us are Neuter; their accusative (as with all neuters) is the same as the nominative: pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus (rarely m.), the crowd. They are not found in the plural, except pelagus, which has a rare nominative and accusative plural pelagē.

Note. — The nominative plural neuter cete, sea monsters, occurs; the nominative singular cetus occurs in Vitruvius.

Case-Forms in the Second Declension

- 49. a. The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in -ī: as, humī, on the ground; Corinthī, at Corinth; for the plural, in -īs: as, Philippīs, at Philippi (cf. p. 34, footnote).
- b. The genitive of nouns in -ius or -ium ended, until the Augustan Age, in a single -ī: as, fīlī, of a son; Pompēī, of Pompey (Pompēius); but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, ingĕ'nī, of genius.¹
- c. Proper names in -ius have -ī in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, Vergili. So also, fīlius, son; genius, divine guardian: as, audī, mī fīlī, hear, my son.

Adjectives in -ius form the vocative in -ie, and some of these are occasionally used as nouns: as, Lacedaemonie, O Spartan.

Note. — Greek names in -īus have the vocative -īe: as, Lyrcīus, vocative Lyrcīe.

- d. The genitive plural often has -um or (after v) -om (cf. § 6. a) instead of -ōrum, especially in the poets: as, deum, superum, dīvom, of the gods; virum, of men. Also in compounds of vir, and in many words of money, measure, and weight: as, Sēvirum, of the Seviri; nummum, of coins; iūgerum, of acres.
- e. The original ending of the ablative singular (-ōd) is sometimes found in early Latin: as, Gnaivōd (later, Gnaeō), Cneius.
- f. Proper names in -âius, -êius, -ôius (as, Aurunculêius, Bôi), are declined like Pompêius.
- ¹ The genitive in -ii occurs once in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was probably unknown to Cicero.

g. Deus (M.), god, is thus declined: —

Singular		Plural	
Nom.	deus	de ī (di ī), d ī	
GEN.	deI	deörum, deum	
DAT.	deō	de is (di is), d is	
Acc.	deum	de ōs	
ABL.	de ō	de īs (di īs), d īs	

Note. — The vocative singular of deus does not occur in classic Latin, but is said to have been dee; deus (like the nominative) occurs in the Vulgate. For the genitive plural, divum or divom (from divus, divine) is often used.

50. The following stems in ero-, in which e belongs to the stem, retain the e throughout and are declined like puer (§ 47):—

adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; puer, boy; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; Liber, Bacchus.

Also, the adjective liber, free, of which liberi, children, is the plural (§ 111. a), and compounds in -fer and -ger (stem fero-, gero-): as, lücifer, morning star; armiger, squire.

- a. An old nominative socerus occurs. So vocative puere, boy, as if from †puerus (regularly puer).
- **b.** Vir, man, has genitive virī; the adjective satur, sated, has saturī; vesper, evening, has ablative vespere (locative vesperī, in the evening).
- c. Mulciber, Vulcan, has -berī and -brī in the genitive. The barbaric names Hibēr and Celtibēr retain ē throughout.
- 51. The following, not having e in the stem, insert it in the nominative singular and are declined like ager (§ 47):—

```
ager, field, stem agro-;
                           coluber, snake;
                                                 magister, master;
                                                minister, servant;
                           conger, sea eel;
aper, boar;
arbiter, judge;
                           culter, knife;
                                                 oleaster, wild olive;
auster, south wind;
                                                onager (-grus), wild ass;
                           faber, smith;
                           fiber, beaver;
                                                scomber (-brus), mackerel.
cancer, crab;
                           liber, book;
caper, goat;
```

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension

52. Greek nouns of the Second Declension end in -os, -os, masculine or feminine, and in -on neuter.

They are mostly proper names and are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural, when found, being regular:—

	mythos, м. fable	Athōs, M. Athos		Dēlos, F. Delos	Īlion, N. Ilium
		SINGULAR			
Nom.	mỹth os	Athōs (-ō)		Dēlos	I lion
GEN.	$\mathbf{m} \mathbf{ar{y}} \mathbf{th} \mathbf{ar{I}}$	Athō (-ī)		Dēlī	Īli ī
DAT.	$m ar{ ext{y}} ext{th} ar{ extbf{o}}$	Athō		Dēl ō	Ilið
Acc.	mỹth on	Athōn (-um)		Dēlon (-um)	Ilion
ABL.	$mar{y}tholdsymbol{\delta}$	Athō	1	Dēl ō	Īliō
Voc.	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{ar{y}}\mathbf{the}$	Ath ōs		\mathbf{D} ēl $oldsymbol{e}$	I li on

- a. Many names in -ēs belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -ī: as, Thūcydidēs, Thūcydidī (compare § 44. b).
- b. Several names in -er have also a nominative in -us: as, Teucer or Teucrus. The name Panthüs has the vocative Panthü (§ 81. 3).
- c. The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -on: as, Georgicon, of the Georgics.
- d. The termination -oe (for Greek -ou) is sometimes found in the nominative plural: as, Adelphoe, the Adelphi (a play of Terence).
- e. Greek names in -eus (like Orpheus) have forms of the second and third declensions (see § 82).

THIRD DECLENSION (CONSONANT AND i-STEMS)

- 53. Nouns of the Third Declension end in a, e, ī, ō, y, c, 1, n, r, s, t, x.
 - 54. Stems of the Third Declension are classed as follows:—
 - I. Consonant Stems $\begin{cases} a. & \text{Mute stems.} \\ b. & \text{Liquid and Nasal stems.} \end{cases}$
 - II. I-Stems $\begin{cases} a. & \text{Pure i-stems.} \\ b. & \text{Mixed i-stems.} \end{cases}$
 - 55. The Nominative is always derived from the stem.

The variety in form in the Nominative is due to simple modifications of the stem, of which the most important are —

- 1. Combination of final consonants: as of c (or g) and s to form x; dux, ducis, stem duc-; rex, regis, stem reg-.
- 2. Omission of a final consonant: as of a final nasal; leō, leōnis, stem leōn-; ōrātiō, ōrātiōnis, stem ōrātiōn-.
 - 3. Omission of a final vowel: as of final i; calcar, calcaris, stem calcari-.
- 4. Change of vowel in the final syllable: as of a to e; princeps (for -caps), principis, stem princip- (for -cap-).

CONSONANT STEMS

Mute Stems

56. Masculine and Feminine Nouns with mute stems form the Nominative by adding s to the stem.

A labial (p) is retained before s: as, princep-s.

A lingual (t, d) is dropped before s: as, miles (stem milit-), custos (stem custod-).

A palatal (c, g) unites with s to form x: as, dux (for †duc-s), rex (for †reg-s).

a. In dissyllabic stems the final syllable often shows e in the nominative and i in the stem: as, princeps, stem princip- (for -cap-).

57. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

þı	inceps, c., chief Stem princip-	rādīx, f., root Stem rādīc-	mîles, m., soldier Stem milit-	
		Singular		CASE-ENDINGS
Nom.	prīncep s	rādī x	mīle s	-6
GEN.	prīncip is	rādīc is	mīlit is	-is
DAT.	prīncip ī	rādīc ī	mīlit ī	-1
Acc.	prīncip em	rādīc em	mīlit em	-em
ABL.	prīncipe	rādīc e	\mathbf{m} îlit \mathbf{e}	- e
		Plural		
Nom.	prīncip ēs	rādīc ēs	mīlit ēs	-ēs
GEN.	p rīncip um	rādīc um	\mathbf{m} īlit $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{m}$	-um
DAT.	prīncip ibus	rādīc ibus	mīlit ibus	-ibus
Acc.	prīncip ēs	rādīc ēs	mīlit ēs	-ēs
ABL.	prīncipi bus	rādīc ibus	mīlit ibus	-ibus
ci	īstōs, c., guard Stem cūstōd-	dux, c., leader Stem duc-	rēx, м., king Stem rēg-	
		Singular	1	CASE-ENDINGS
Nom.	cūstō s	du x	rē x	-6
GEN.	cūstōd is	ducis	rēg is	-is
DAT.	cūstōd ī	ducī	rēgī	-Ī
Acc.	cūstōd em	\mathbf{ducem}	rēg em	-em
ABL.	cūstōd e	$\mathbf{duc}\mathbf{e}$	rēg e	-е
			-	

PLURAL

Nom.	cūstōd ēs	duc ēs	rēg ēs	-ēs
GEN.	cūstōd um	duc um	rēgum	-um
DAT.	cūstōd ibus	du cibus	rēg ibus	-ibus
Acc.	cūstōd ēs	duc ēs	rēg ēs	-ēs
ABL.	cūstōdi bus	duc ibus	rēg ibus	-ibus

a. In like manner are declined —

aries, -etis (M.), ram; comes, -itis (C.), companion; lapis, -idis (M.), stone; iddex, -icis (M.), judge; cornix, -icis (F.), raven, and many other nouns.

- 58. Most mute stems are Masculine or Feminine. Those that are neuter have for the Nominative the simple stem. But, —
- a. Lingual Stems (t, d) ending in two consonants drop the final mute: as, cor (stem cord-), lac (stem lact-). So also stems in at- from the Greek: as, poēma (stem poēmat-).
 - b. The stem capit- shows u in the nominative (caput for †capot).

59. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

	COT, N., heart STEM cord-	caput, N., head Sтем capit-	poēma , n., <i>poem</i> Stem poēmat-	
		SINGULA	R	CASE-ENDINGS
Nом	. cor	caput	poēma	
GEN.	. cord is	capit is	poēmat is	-is
DAT	cord	capitī	poēmat ī	-1
Acc.	cor	caput	poēma	**************************************
ABL	$\operatorname{cord}_{\mathbf{e}}$	capite	poēmat e	-e
		Plural		
Nom	. cord a	capita	poēmat a	-a
GEN.		capitum	poēmat um	-um
DAT.	cordibus	capit ibus	poēmatibus	-ibus
Acc.	cord a	capita	poēmat a	-a
ABL.	cordibus	capitibus	poēmatibus	-ibus

60. The following irregularities require notice: —

- a. Greek neuters with nominative singular in -a (as poēma) frequently end in -īs in the dative and ablative plural, and rarely in -ōrum in the genitive plural; as, poēmatīs (for poēmatībus), poēmatōrum (for poēmatum).
- b. A number of monosyllabic nouns with mute stems want the genitive plural (like cor). See § 103. g. 2.

Liquid and Nasal Stems (1, 11, 17)

61. In Masculine and Feminine nouns with liquid and nasal stems the Nominative is the same as the stem.

Exceptions are the following:—

- 1. Stems in on- drop n in the nominative: as in legio, stem legion-.
- 2. Stems in din- and gin- drop n and keep an original o in the nominative: as in virgo, stem virgin-.1
- 3. Stems in in- (not din- or gin-) retain n and have e instead of i in the nominative: as in cornicen, stem cornicin-.1
 - 4. Stems in tr- have -ter in the nominative: as, pater, stem patr-.2

62. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

C	õnsul, м., consul Stem cõnsul-	leō, m., lion Stem leòn-	virgo, f., maiden Stem virgin-	pater, m., father STEM patr-	•
			SINGULAR		
Nom. GEN. DAT. Acc. ABL.	cōnsul is cōnsul ī cōnsul em	leō leōn is leōn ī leōn em leōn e	virgō virgin is virgin ī virgin em virgin e	pater patris patri patrem patre	-is -is -i -em -e.
			Plural		
Nom. GEN. DAT. Acc. Abl.	cōnsul um cōnsul ibus cōnsul ēs	leõn ës leõn um leõn ibus leõn ës leõn ibus	virgin ēs virgin um virgin ibus virgin ēs virgin ibus	patrēs patrum patribus patrēs patribus	-ēs -um -ibus -ēs -ibus

NOTE 1. — Stems in 11-, rr- (N.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: as, far, farris; mel, mellis.

Note 2.— A few masculine and feminine stems have a nominative in -s as well as in -r: as, honos or honor, arbos or arbor.

Note 3. — Canis, dog, and iuvenis, youth, have -is in the nominative.

¹ These differences depend in part upon special phonetic laws, in accordance with which vowels in weakly accented or unaccented syllables are variously modified, and in part upon the influence of analogy.

² These, no doubt, had originally ter- in the stem, but this had become weakened to tr- in some of the cases even in the parent speech. In Latin only the nominative and vocative singular show the e. But cf. Māspitris and Māspiteris (Mā[r]s-piter), quoted by Priscian as old forms.

63. In Neuter nouns with liquid or nasal stems the Nominative is the same as the stem.

Exceptions: 1. Stems in in- have e instead of i in the nominative: as in nomen, stem nomin-.

- 2. Most stems in er- and or- have -us in the nominative: as, genus, stem gener-.1
- 64. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

:	nomen, n., name Stem nomin-	genus, n., race Stem gener-	corpus, n., body Stem corpor-	aequor, n., sea Stem aequor-
		SINGUL	AR ′	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	nōmin is nōmin ī nōmen	genus gener is gener i genus gener e	corpus corpor is corpor i corpus corpor e	aequor aequoris aequor aequor aequore
		Plura	L	
Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL.	nōmin um nōmin ibus nōmin a	genera generum generibus genera generibus	corpora, corpor ibus corpora corpor ibus	aequora aequorum aequoribus aequora aequoribus

So also are declined opus, -eris, work; pignus, -eris or -oris, pledge, etc.

NOTE. — The following real or apparent liquid and nasal stems have the genitive plural in -ium, and are to be classed with the i-stems: imber, linter, ūter, venter; glīs, mās, mūs, [†rēn]; also vīrēs (plural of vīs: see § 79).

i-Stems

- 65. Nouns of this class include —
- 1. Pure i-Stems:
- a. Masculine and Feminine parisyllabic 2 nouns in -is and four in -er.
- b. Neuters in -e, -al, and -ar.
- 2. Mixed i-Stems, declined in the singular like consonant stems, in the plural like i-stems.

¹ These were originally s-stems (cf. § 15. 4).

² I.e. having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive singular.

Pure i-Stems

66. Masculine and Feminine parisyllabic nouns in -is form the Nominative singular by adding s to the stem.

Four stems in bri- and tri- do not add s to form the nominative, but drop i and insert e before r. These are imber, linter, üter, venter.

67. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: —

•	r., thirst a siti-	turris, F., tower Stem turri-	īgnis, m., <i>fire</i> Stem īgni-	imber, m., rain Stem imbri-
		Singu	ULAR	
Nom.	sit is	turris	īgn is	imber
GEN.	sit is	turr is	īgn is	imbr is
DAT.	sit ī	turrī	īgn ī	\mathbf{imbr}
Acc.	sitim	turrim (-em)	īgn em	\mathbf{imbrem}
ABL.	sitI	turrī (-e)	īgn ī (-e)	imbrī (-e)
		PLU	RAL	
Nom.		turrēs	īgn ēs	imbr ēs
GEN.		turrium	īgn ium	imbr ium
DAT.		turribus	īgn ibus	imbr ibus
Acc.	·	turr is (-ēs)	īgn īs (-ēs)	imbr īs (-ēs)
ABL.		turribus	īgn ibus	imbr ibus

- 68. In Neuters the Nominative is the same as the stem, with final i changed to e: as, mare, stem mari. But most nouns in which the i of the stem is preceded by āl or ār lose the final vowel and shorten the preceding ā: as, animāl, stem animāli.2
- a. Neuters in -e, -al, and -ar have -ī in the ablative singular, -ium in the genitive plural, and -ia in the nominative and accusative plural: as, animal, animālī, -ia, -ium.
- 1 Such are animal, bacchānal, bidental, capital, cervīcal, cubital, lupercal, minūtal, puteal, quadrantal, toral, tribūnal, vectīgal; calcar, cochlear, exemplar, lacūnar, laquear, lūcar, lūminar, lupānar, palear, pulvīnar, torcular. Cf. the plurals dentālia, frontālia, genuālia, spōnsālia; altāria, plantāria, speculāria, tālāria; also many names of festivals, as, Sāturnālia.

² Exceptions are augurale, collare, focale, navale, penetrale, ramale, scutale, tibiale; alveare, capillare, cochleare.

69. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

	sedīle, n., seat Stem sedīli-	animal, n., animal Stem animāli-	calcar, n., spur Stem calcāri-	
	·	Singular		CASE-ENDINGS
Nom.	sedīl e	animal	calcar	-e or
GEN.	sedīl is	a nimāl is	calcār is	-is
DAT.	$\mathbf{sed}\mathbf{\bar{i}l}\mathbf{\bar{i}}$	animāl ī	calcārī	-ī
Acc.	\mathbf{sed} īl \mathbf{e}	animal	calcar	-e or —
ABL.	sedīl ī	animāl ī	calcārī	-ī
		Plural		
Nom.	sedīl ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	-ia
GEN.	sedīl ium	animāl ium	calcārium	-ium
DAT.	sedīl ibus	animāl ibus	calcār itus	-ibus
Acc.	sedīl ia	a nimāl ia	calcār ia	-ia
ABL.	sedīl ibus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	-ibus

Mixed i-Stems

70. Mixed i-stems are either original i-stems that have lost their i-forms in the singular, or consonant stems that have assumed i-forms in the plural.

Note. — It is sometimes impossible to distinguish between these two classes.

- 71. Mixed i-stems have -em in the accusative and -e in the ablative singular, -ium in the genitive 1 and -īs or -ēs in the accusative plural. They include the following:—
 - 1. Nouns in -ēs, gen. -is.2
 - 2. Monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by a consonant: as, ars, pons, arx.
 - 3. Polysyllables in -ns or -rs: as, cliëns, cohors.
 - 4. Nouns in -tās, genitive -tātis (genitive plural usually -um) : as, cīvitās.
- 5. Penātēs, optimātēs, and nouns denoting birth or abode (patrials) in -ās, -īs, plural -ātēs, -ītēs: as, Arpīnās, plural Arpīnātēs; Quirīs, plural Çuirītēs.
- 6. The following monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by a vowel: dos, fraus, glis, lis, mas, mus, nix, nox, strix, vis.
- ¹ There is much variety in the practice of the ancients, some of these words having -ium, some -um, and some both.
- ² These are acīnacēs, aedēs, alcēs, caedēs, cautēs, clādēs, compāgēs, contāgēs, famēs, fēlēs, fidēs (plural), indolēs, lābēs, luēs, mēlēs, molēs, nūbēs, palumbēs, prolēs, propāgēs, pūbēs, sēdēs, saepēs, sordēs, stragēs, struēs, subolēs, tābēs, torquēs, tudēs, vātēs, vehēs, veprēs, verrēs, vulpēs; aedēs has also nominative aedis.

72. Nouns of this class are thus declined:—

	nūbēs, f., cloud Strm nūb(i)-	urbs, f., city Stem urb(i)-	nox, f., night Stem noct(i)-	cliëns, m., client Stem client(i)-	aetās, r., age Stem aetāt(i)-
			SINGULAR		
Nom GEN DAT ACC ABL	. nūb is . nūb ī . nūb em	urbs urbis urbi urbem urbe	nox noctis noctem nocte	cliën s client is client s clien tem client e	aetās aetātis aetātī aetātem aetāte
			PLURAL		
Nom GEN DAT ACC ABL	. nūbium . nūbibus . nūbīs(-ēs)	urb ēs urb ium urb ibus urb īs(-ēs) urb ibus	noctēs noctium noctibus noctīs(-ēs) noctibus	client ēs client ium ¹ client ibus client īs(-ēs) client ībus	aetāt ēs aetātum ² aetātibus aetātīs(-ēs) aetātibus

Summary of i-Stems

- 73. The i-declension was confused even to the Romans themselves, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having i-forms which afterwards disappeared. There was a tendency in nouns to lose the i-forms, in adjectives to gain them. The nominative plural (-is) * was most thoroughly lost, next the accusative singular (-im), next the ablative (-i); while the genitive and accusative plural (-ium, -īs) were retained in almost all.
 - 74. I-stems show the i of the stem in the following forms:—
- a. They have the genitive plural in -ium (but some monosyllables lack it entirely). For a few exceptions, see § 78.
 - b. All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in -ia.
 - c. The accusative plural (m. or f.) is regularly -is.
 - d. The accusative singular (M. or F.) of a few ends in -im (§ 75).
- e. The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in -ī (see § 76).
- 75. The regular case-ending of the Accusative singular of istems (M. or F.) would be -im: as, sitis, sitim (cf. stella, -am; servus, -um); but in most nouns this is changed to -em (following the consonant declension).

¹ Rarely clientum. 2 Also aetātium. Cf. § 71. 4.

⁸ An old, though not the original, ending (see p. 32, footnote 2).

- a. The accusative in -im is found exclusively —
- 1. In Greek nouns and in names of rivers.
- 2. In būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vīs.
- 3. In adverbs in -tim (being accusative of nouns in -tis), as, partim; and in amussim.
- b. The accusative in -im is found sometimes in febris, puppis, restis, turris, securis, sementis, and rarely in many other words.
- 76. The regular form of the Ablative singular of i-stems would be -ī: as, sitis, sitī; but in most nouns this is changed to -e.
 - a. The ablative in -ī is found exclusively —
 - 1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§ 75); also securis.
- 2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: aequālis, annālis, aquālis, consulāris, gentīlis, molāris, prīmipīlāris, tribūlis.
 - 3. In neuters in -e, -al, -ar: except baccar, iubar, rēte, and sometimes mare.
 - b. The ablative in -ī is found sometimes —
- 1. In avis, clāvis, febris, fīnis, īgnis, imber, lūx, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sēmentis, strigilis, turris, and occasionally in other words.
- 2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, nātālis, rīvālis, sapiēns, tridēns, trirēmis, vōcālis.
- Note 1.— The ablative of fames is always fame (§ 105. e). The defective mane has sometimes mani (§ 103. b. n.) as ablative.
- Note 2.— Most names of towns in -e (as, Praeneste, Tergeste) and Soracte, a mountain, have the ablative in -e. Caere has Caerete.
 - NOTE 3. Canis and invenis have cane, invene.
- 77. The regular Nominative plural of i-stems is -ēs,² but -īs is occasionally found. The regular Accusative plural -īs is common, but not exclusively used in any word. An old form for both cases is -eis (diphthong).
 - 78. The following have -um (not -lum) in the genitive plural:
- 1. Always, canis, iuvenis, ambāgēs, mare (once only, otherwise wanting), volucris; regularly, sēdēs, vātēs.
 - 2. Sometimes, apis, caedēs, clādēs, mēnsis, struēs, subolēs.
- 3. Very rarely,—patrials in -ās, -ātis; -īs, -ītis; as, Arpīnās, Arpīnātum; Samnīs, Samnītum.
 - 1 Always in the formula aqua et igni interdici (§ 401).
- ² The Indo-European ending of the nominative plural, -₹s (preserved in Greek in consonant stems, as ὅρτυξ, ὅρτυγ-ϵs), contracts with a stem-vowel and gives -₹s in the Latin i-declension (cf. the Greek plural ὅϵις). This -₹s was extended to consonant stems in Latin. ⁸ Canis and iuvenis are really n-stems.

Irregular Nouns of the Third Declension

79. In many nouns the stem is irregularly modified in the nominative or other cases. Some peculiar forms are thus declined:—

	bōs, c. ox, cow	senex, M. old man	carō, f. flesh		os, n. bone	vīs, f. force
		Singu	JLAR			
Nom.	b ōs	sen e x	carō		os	v īs
GEN.	bŏv is	sen is	carn is		088 is	vīs (rare)
DAT.	bovī	$\mathbf{sen}\mathbf{\tilde{I}}$	carnī		ossī	vī (rare)
Acc.	bov em	sen em	carnem	l	OS	vim
ABL.	bov e	s en e	carne		08 8e	vī
	cattle	PLU	RAL			strength
37	_					•
Nom.	bov ēs	sen ēs	carn ës		oss a	vīr ēs
GEN.	boum	senum	carniur		ossium	vī rium
DAT.	bō bus (bū bus) bov ēs	senibus	carnibu	15	ossibus	
Acc.	_	sen ēs seni bus	carn ës carn ib u		ossa ossibus	vīr īs (-ēs) vīribus
ABL.	bō bus (bū bus)	sembus	Carnib	159	0881048	VIIIDUB
	sūs, c. swine	Iuppiter, Jupiter	м.	nix,	F.	iter, N. march
		Sing	ULAR			
Nom	. sūs	Iuppiter ¹		ni x		iter
GEN		Iov is		niv is		itiner is
DAT	_	Iov ī		niv ī		itiner ī
Acc	. suem	Iov em		niver	n	iter
ABL	. sue	Iov e		nive		itiner e
		PLU	RAL			
Nom	. suēs			niv ē s	3	itinera
GEN				niviu		itinerum
DAT	¥)		nivit	us	itiner ibus
Acc	•	,		niv ē :	3	itiner a
ABL	X)		nivit	auc	itiner ibus

¹ Also Iüpiter.

- a. Two vowel-stems in ū-, grū- and sū-, which follow the third declension, add s in the nominative, and are inflected like mute stems: grūs has also a nominative gruis; sūs has both suibus and sūbus in the dative and ablative plural, grūs has only gruibus.
- b. In the stem bov- (bou-) the diphthong ou becomes 5 in the nominative (bos, bovis).

In nav- (nau-) an i is added (navis, -is), and it is declined like turris (§ 67).

- In Iov- (= $Z\epsilon \dot{v}_s$) the diphthong (ou) becomes \ddot{u} in I \ddot{u} -piter (for -pater), genitive Iovis, etc.; but the form Iuppiter is preferred.
- c. In iter, itineris (N.), iecur, i-cinoris (iecoris) (N.), supellex, supellectilis (F.), the nominative has been formed from a shorter stem; in senex, senis, from a longer; so that these words show a combination of forms from two distinct stems.
- d. In nix, nivis the nominative retains a g from the original stem, the g uniting with s, the nominative ending, to form x. In the other cases the stem assumes the form niv- and it adds i in the genitive plural.
- e. Vās (n.), vāsis, keeps s throughout; plural vāsa, vāsorum. A dative plural vāsibus also occurs. There is a rare singular vāsum.

The Locative Case

80. The Locative form for nouns of the third declension ends in the singular in -ī or -e, in the plural in -ibus: as, rūrī, in the country; Carthāginī or Carthāgine, at Carthage; Trallibus, at Tralles.¹

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension

- 81. Many nouns originally Greek mostly proper names retain Greek forms of inflection. So especially
 - 1. Genitive singular in -os, as, tigridos.
 - 2. Accusative singular in -a, as, aethera.
 - 3. Vocative singular like the stem, as, Pericle, Orpheu, Atla.
 - 4. Nominative plural in -es, as, hērōes.
 - 5. Accusative plural in -as, as, hēroas.

¹ The Indo-European locative singular ended in -I, which became -ĕ in Latin. Thus the Latin ablative in -ē is, historically considered, a locative. The Latin ablative in -ī (from -īd) was an analogical formation (cf. -ā from -ād, -ō from -ōd), properly belonging to i-stems. With names of towns and a few other words, a locative function was ascribed to forms in -ī (as, Carthāginī), partly on the analogy of the real locative of o-stems (as, Corinthī, § 49. a); but forms in -ĕ also survived in this use. The plural -bus is properly dative or ablative, but in forms like Trallibus it has a locative function. Cf. Philippīs (§ 49. a), in which the ending -īs is, historically considered, either locative, or instrumental, or both, and Athēnīs (§ 43. c), in which the ending is formed on the analogy of o-stems.

82. Some of these forms are seen in the following examples: —

1	iērōs, m., <i>her</i> o	lampas, F., torch	basis, f., base	tigris, c., tiger	r nāis, F., naiad
	STEM hērō-	Stem lampad-	STRM basi-	$\mathbf{S_{TEM}} \left\{egin{array}{l} \mathbf{tigrid.} \ \mathbf{tigri-} \end{array} ight.$	STEM nāid-
		S	INGULAR	_	
Non.	hērō s	lampa s	bas is	tigr is	nāi s
GEN.	hērō is	lampados	base ōs	tigris (-idos	s) nāidos
DAT.	hērō ī	lampad ī	basī	tigrī	nāid ī
Acc.	hērō a	lampada	basin	tigrin(-ida)) nāida
ABL.	hērō e	lampad e	basī	tigr ī (-ide)	nāid e
			PLURAL		
Non.	hērō ĕs	lampad ĕs	bas ēs	tigr ēs	nāid ĕs
GEN.	hērō um	lampadum	basium(-eōn)	tigrium	nāid um
D.,A.1	hērō ibus	lampadibus	bas ibus	tigr ibus	nāid ibus
Acc.	hērō ăs	lampad ăs	basīs (-eîs)	tigrīs (-idăs	nāid ās
		Pro	PER NAMES	•	
Nom.	Dīdō		Simoīs		Сарув
GEN.	Dīdōn is (I	Pīd ūs)	Simoentis		Capyos
DAT.	Dīdōn ī (Ďī	•	Simoent		Capyī
Acc.	Dīdōnem (Simoenta		Capyn
ABL.	Dīdōn e(- ō		Simoente		Capyë
Voc.	Dīdō		Simoīs		Capy
Nox.	Orpheu s		Pericl ēs		Paris
GEN.	Orphe i (-eð	is)	Periclis(-1)		Paridis
DAT.	Orphe ī(-e č	5)	Periclī(-i)		Parid ī
Aoa	Ornhea	· ·		-87)	Paridem,
Acc.	Orphe a(-u	ш,	Periclem (-ea,		Parim(-in)
ABL.	Orphe ō		Pericle		Paride, Part
Voc.	Orphe u		Pericl ēs(-ē)		Pari

Note. — The regular Latin forms may be used for most of the above.

- 83. Other peculiarities are the following:—
- a. Delphinus, -i (m.), has also the form delphin, -inis; Salamis, -is (f.), has acc. Salamina.
- b. Most stems in id-(nom. -is) often have also the forms of i-stems: as, tigris, gen. -idis (-idos) or -is; acc. -idem (-ida) or -im (-in); abl. -ide or -ī. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. -idem (-ida) abl. -ide, not -im or -ī. (These stems are irregular also in Greek.)

¹ Dative, hērōisin (once only).

- c. Stems in on-sometimes retain -n in the nominative: as, Agamemnon (or Agamemno), genitive -onis, accusative -ona.
- d. Stems in ont- form the nominative in -on: as, horizon, Xenophon; but a few are occasionally Latinized into on- (nom. -o): as, Draco, -onis; Antipho, -onis.
- e. Like Simoīs are declined stems in ant-, ent-, and a few in unt- (nominative in -as, -īs, -us): as, Atlas, -antis; Trapezus, -untis.
- f. Some words fluctuate between different declensions: as Orpheus between the second and the third.
- g. -ōn is found in the genitive plural in a few Greek titles of books: as, Metamorphōseōn, of the Metamorphoses (Ovid's well-known poem); Geōrgicōn, of the Georgics (a poem of Virgil).

Gender in the Third Declension

- 84. The Gender of nouns of this declension must be learned by practice and from the Lexicon. Many are masculine or feminine by nature or in accordance with the general rules for gender (p. 15). The most important rules for the others, with their principal exceptions, are the following: 1
- 85. Masculine are nouns in -or, -ōs, -er, -ĕs (gen. -itis), -ex (gen. -ĭcis): as, color, flōs, imber, gurges (gurgitis), vertex (verticis).

Exceptions are the following: -

- a. Feminine are arbor; cos, dos; linter.
- b. Neuter are ador, aequor, cor, marmor; ōs (ōris); also os (ossis); cadāver, iter, tūber, ūber, vēr; and names of plants and trees in -er: as, acer, papāver.
- 86. Feminine are nouns in -ō, -ās, -ēs, -is, -us, -x, and in -s preceded by a consonant: as, legiō, cīvitās, nūbēs, avis, virtūs, arx, urbs. The nouns in -ō are mostly those in -dō and -gō, and abstract and collective nouns in -iō.

Exceptions are the following:—

a. Masculine are leō, leōnis; ligō,-ōnis; sermō, -ōnis; also cardō, harpagō, margō, ōrdō, turbō; and concrete nouns in -iō: as, pugiō, ūniō, papiliō; acīnacēs, ariēs, celēs, lebēs, pariēs, pēs;

1 Some nouns of doubtful or variable gender are omitted.

² Many nouns in -ō (gen. -ōnis) are masculine by signification: as, gerō, carrier; restiō, ropemaker; and family names (originally nicknames): as, Cicerō, Nāsō. See §§ 236. c, 255.

Nouns in -nis and -guis: as, īgnis, sanguis; also axis, caulis, collis, cucumis, ēnsis, fascis, follis, fūstis, lapis, mēnsis, orbis, piscis, postis, pulvis, vōmis; mūs;

calix, fornix, grex, phoenix, and nouns in -ex (gen. -icis) (§ 85); dēns, fons, mons, pons.

Note. — Some nouns in -is and -ns which are masculine were originally adjectives or participles agreeing with a masculine noun: as, Aprilis (sc. mēnsis), M., April; oriēns (sc. sōl), M., the east; annālis (sc. liber), M., the year-book.

- b. Neuter are vās (vāsis); crūs, iūs, pūs, rūs, tūs.
- 87. Neuter are nouns in -a, -e, -l, -n, -ar, -ur, -us: as, poēma, mare, animal, nomen, calcar, robur, corpus; also lac and caput.

Exceptions are the following: -

- a. Masculine are sāl, sõl, pecten, vultur, lepus.
- b. Feminine is pecus (gen. -udis).

FOURTH DECLENSION

- 88. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in u-. This is usually weakened to i before -bus. Masculine and Feminine nouns form the nominative by adding s; Neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with ū (long).
 - 89. Nouns of the Fourth Declension are declined as follows:

	s, f., hand la	icus, m., lake Stem lacu-		genū, n., knec Stem genu-	•
		\$	Singular		
Nom. GEN. DAT. Acc. ABL.	man us man ūs man uī (-ū) man um man ū	lacus lacüs lacui(-ü) lacum lacü	-us -us -üs -ui(-ü) -um -ü	gen ü gen ü gen ü gen ü genü	CASE-ENDINGS - Ü - Ü - Ü - Ü - Ü
			PLURAL		
Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL.	manüs manuum manibus manüs manibus	lactis lacuum lacubus lactis lactis	-ūs -uum -ibus(-ubus) -ūs -ibus(-ubus)	genua genuum genibus genua genibus	-uà -uum -ibus -ua -ibus

Gender in the Fourth Declension

90. Most nouns of the Fourth Declension in -us are Masculine.

Exceptions: The following are Feminine: acus, anus, colus, domus, idūs (plural), manus, nurus, porticus, quinquātrūs (plural), socrus, tribus, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, penus, specus.

91. The only Neuters of the Fourth Declension are cornū, genū, pecū ($\S 105. f$), verū.¹

Case-Forms in the Fourth Declension

- 92. The following peculiarities in case-forms of the Fourth Declension require notice:—
- a. A genitive singular in -ī (as of the second declension) sometimes occurs in nouns in -tus: as, senātus, genitive senātī (regularly senātūs).
- b. In the genitive plural -uum is sometimes pronounced as one syllable, and may then be written -um: as, currum (Aen. vi. 653) for curruum.
- c. The dative and ablative plural in -ŭbus are retained in partus and tribus; so regularly in artus and lacus, and occasionally in other words; portus and specus have both -ubus and -ibus.
- d. Most names of plants and trees, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension: as, ficus, fig, genitive ficus or fici.
- e. An old genitive singular in -uis or -uos and an old genitive plural in -uom occur rarely: as, senātuis, senātuos; fluctuom.
- f. The ablative singular ended anciently in -ūd (cf. § 43. n. 1): as, magistrātūd.
- 93. Domus (F.), house, has two stems ending in u- and o-. Hence it shows forms of both the fourth and second declensions:

SINGULAR PLURAL

Nom.	dom us	dom ūs
GEN.	dom ūs (dom ī , loc.)	dom uum (dom õrum)
DAT.	dom uī (dom ō)	dom ibus
Acc.	domum	dom ōs (domūs)
ABL.	dom ō (dom ū)	dom ibus

NOTE 1. — The Locative is domi (rarely domui), at home.

Note 2. — The Genitive domi occurs in Plautus; domorum is late or poetic.

¹ A few other neuters of this declension are mentioned by the ancient grammarians as occurring in certain cases.

- 94. Most nouns of the Fourth Declension are formed from verb-stems, or roots, by means of the suffix -tus (-sus) (§ 238. b): cantus, song, can, cano, sing; casus (for †cad-tus), chance, cad, cado, fall; exsulatus, exile, from exsulo, to be an exile (exsul).
 - a. Many are formed either from verb-stems not in use, or by analogy: consulatus (as if from †consulo, -are), senatus, incestus.
- **b.** The accusative and the dative or ablative of nouns in -tus (-sus) form the Supines of verbs (§ 159. b): as, spectātum, petītum; dictū, vīsū.
- c. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun: as, iussū (meō), by (my) command; so iniussū (populī), without (the people's) order. Of some only the dative is used: as, dīvīsuī.

FIFTH DECLENSION (&-STEMS)

- 95. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in $\bar{\epsilon}$ -, which appears in all the cases. The Nominative is formed from the stem by adding s.
 - 96. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are declined as follows: —

	s, f., thing St em 16-	diēs, m., day Strm diē-	fidēs, F., faith Stem fidē-	
		Singular		OLOW BUDINGS
Non.	rēs	di ēs	fidēs	Case-Endings - ēs
GEN.	r ĕi	di ēī (di ē)	fid ĕī	-ēī (-ē)
DAT.	r ĕī	di eī (di e)	fid ĕī	-ēī (-ē)
Acc.	rem	diem	\mathbf{fidem}	-em
ABL.	rē	di ē	fid ē	- 8
		Plural		
Nom.	rēs	di ēs		-ēs
GEN.	rērum '	di ērum		-ērum
DAT.	rēbu s	di ēbus		-ēbus
Acc.	r ēs	di ēs		-ēs
ABL.	r ēbus	di ēbus		-ēbus

Note. — The ē of the stem is shortened in the genitive and dative singular of fides, spes, res, but in these it is found long in early Latin. In the accusative singular e is always short.

Gender in the Fifth Declension

- 97. All nouns of the Fifth Declension are Feminine, except dies (usually M.), day, and meridies (M.), noon.
- a. Dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially in phrases indicating a fixed time, and regularly feminine when used of time in general: as, constituta die, on a set day; longa dies, a long time.

Case-Forms in the Fifth Declension

- 98. The following peculiarities require notice:—
- a. Of nouns of the fifth declension, only dies and res are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative or accusative in acies, effigies, eluvies, facies, giacies, series, species, spes.¹
- b. The Locative form of this declension ends in -ē. It is found only in certain adverbs and expressions of time: —

hodiē, to-day; diē quārtō (old, quārtī), the fourth day; perendiē, day after to-morrow; prīdiē, the day before.

- c. The fifth declension is closely related to the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, māteria, -iēs; saevitia, -iēs. The genitive and dative in -ēī are rarely found in these words.
- d. Some nouns vary between the fifth and the third declension: as, requies, saties (also satias, genitive -ātis), plebes (also plebs, genitive plebis), fames, genitive famis, ablative fame.

Note.—In the genitive and dative -ēī (-ēī) was sometimes contracted into -£1: as, tribūnus plēbēl, tribune of the people (plēbēs). Genitives in -ī and -ē also occur: as, diī (Aen. i. 636), plēbī-scītum, aciē (B. G. ii. 23). A few examples of the old genitive in -ēs are found (cf. -ās in the first declension, § 43. b). The dative has rarely -ē, and a form in -ī is cited.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS

Nouns wanting in the Plural

- 99. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (singulāria tantum). These are—
 - 1. Most proper names: as, Caesar, Cæsar; Gallia, Gaul.
- 2. Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass: as, aurum, gold; āer, air; trīticum, wheat.
 - 3. Abstract nouns: as, ambitiō, ambition; fortitūdō, courage; calor, heat.
- ¹ The forms faciërum, speciërum, speciëbus, spërum, spëbus, are cited by grammarians, also spërës, spëribus, and some of these occur in late authors.

- 100. Many of these nouns, however, are used in the plural in some other sense.
- a. The plural of a proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common:—

duodecim Caesares, the twelve Cæsars.

Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine).

Castores, Castor and Pollux; Ioves, images of Jupiter.

- **b.** The plural of names of things reckoned in mass may denote particular objects: as, aera, bronze utensils, nivēs, snowflakes; or different kinds of a thing: as, āerēs, airs (good and bad).
- c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes occasions or instances of the quality, or the like:—

quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; ōtia, periods of rest; calores, frigora, times of heat and cold.

Nouns wanting in the Singular

- 101. Some nouns are commonly or exclusively found in the Plural (plūrālia tantum). Such are
 - 1. Many names of towns: as, Athēnae (Athens), Thūriī, Philippī, Vēiī.
- 2. Names of festivals and games: as, Olympia, the Olympic Games; Bacchānālia, feast of Bacchus; Quinquātrūs, festival of Minerva; lūdī Romānī, the Roman Games.
- 3. Names of classes: as, optimātēs, the upper classes; mâiōrēs, ancestors; līberī, children; penātēs, household gods; Quirītēs, citizens (of Rome).
- 4. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; artūs, joints; dīvitiae, riches; scālae, stairs; valvae, folding-doors; forēs, double-doors; angustiae, a narrow pass (narrows); moenia, city walls.
- Note 1.—Some words, plural by signification in Latin, are translated by English nouns in the singular number: as, deliciae, delight, darling; fauces, throat; fides, lyre (also singular in poetry); insidiae, ambush; cervices, neck; viscera, flesh.
- Note 2.—The poets often use the plural number for the singular, sometimes for metrical reasons, sometimes from a mere fashion: as, ora (for os), the face; sceptra (for sceptrum), sceptre; silentia (for silentium), silence.
- 102. Some nouns of the above classes (§ 101.1-4), have a corresponding singular, as noun or adjective, often in a special sense:
- 1. As noun, to denote a single object: as, Bacchānal, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimās, an aristocrat.
 - 2. As adjective: as, Cato Mâior, Cato the Elder.
- 3. In a sense rare, or found only in early Latin: as, scāla, a ladder: valva, a door; artus, a joint.

Nouns Defective in Certain Cases

103. Many nouns are defective in case-forms: 1 —

- a. Indeclinable nouns, used only as nominative and accusative singular: fas, nefas, instar, nihil, opus (need), secus.
 - Note 1. The indeclinable adjective necesse is used as a nominative or accusative. Note 2. The genitive nihili and the ablative nihili (from nihilum, nothing) occur.
 - b. Nouns found in one case only (monoptotes):—
 - 1. In the nominative singular: glos (F.).
 - 2. In the genitive singular: dicis, nauci (N.).
 - 3. In the dative singular: divisui (m.) (cf. § 94. c).
 - 4. In the accusative singular: amussim (M.); vēnum (dative vēnō in Tacitus).
- 5. In the ablative singular: pondo (n.); mane (n.); astū (m.), by craft; iussū, iniussū, natū, and many other verbal nouns in -us (m.) (§ 94. c).

Note. — Māne is also used as an indeclinable accusative, and an old form māni is used as ablative. Pondo with a numeral is often apparently equivalent to pounds. A nominative singular astus and a plural astus occur rarely in later writers.

- 6. In the accusative plural: infitias.
- c. Nouns found in two cases only (diptotes):—
- 1. In the nominative and ablative singular: fors, forte (F.).
- 2. In the genitive and ablative singular: spontis (rare), sponte (F.).
- 3. In the accusative singular and plural: dicam, dicas (F.).
- 4. In the accusative and ablative plural: forās, forās (r.) (cf. forēs), used as adverbs.
 - d. Nouns found in three cases only (triptotes): -
- 1. In the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular: impetus, -um, -ū (m.)²; iuēs, -em, -ē (F.).
 - 2. In the nominative, accusative, and dative or ablative plural: grātēs, -ibus (F).
- 3. In the nominative, genitive, and dative or ablative plural: iugera, -um, -ibus (n.); but iugerum, etc., in the singular (cf. § 105. b).
 - e. Nouns found in four cases only (tetraptotes):—

In the genitive, dative, accusative, ablative singular: dicionis, -I, -em, -e (F.).

- f. Nouns declined regularly in the plural, but defective in the singular: —
- 1. Nouns found in the singular, in genitive, dative, accusative, ablative: frugis.

 -I, -em, -e (F.); opis, -I (once only), -em, -e (F.; nominative Ops as a divinity).
 - 2. Nouns found in the dative, accusative, ablative: precī, -em, -e (F.).
 - 3. Nouns found in the accusative and ablative: cassem, -e (F.); sordem, -e (F.).
 - 4. Nouns found in the ablative only: ambage (F.); fauce (F.); obice (C.).
 - g. Nouns regular in the singular, defective in the plural: —
 - 1 Some early or late forms and other rarities are omitted.
 - ² The dative singular impetui and the ablative plural impetibus occur once each.

1. The following neuters have in the plural the nominative and accusative only: fel (fella), far (farra), hordeum (hordea), iūs, broth (iūra), mel (mella), murmur (murmura), pūs (pūra), rūs (rūra), tūs or thūs (tūra).

Note. — The neuter ids, right, has only idra in classical writers, but a very rare genitive plural idrum occurs in old Latin.

- 2. calx, cor, cōs, crux, fax, faex, lanx, lūx, nex, ōs (ōris), os (ossis), pāx, pix, rōs, sāl, sōl, vas (vadis), want the genitive plural.
- 3. Most nouns of the fifth declension want the whole or part of the plural (see § 98. a).
 - h. Nouns defective in both singular and plural: —
- 1. Noun found in the genitive, accusative, ablative singular; nominative, accusative, dative, ablative plural: vicis, -em, -e; -ēs, -ibus.
- 2. Noun found in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative singular; genitive plural wanting: dapis, -ī, -em, -e; -ēs, -ibus.8

VARIABLE NOUNS

- 104. Many nouns vary either in Declension or in Gender.
- 105. Nouns that vary in Declension are called heteroclites.4
- a. Colus (f.), distaff; domus (f.), house (see § 93), and many names of plants in -us, vary between the Second and Fourth Declensions.
- **b.** Some nouns vary between the Second and Third: as, iugerum, -ī, -ō, ablative -ō or -e, plural -a, -um, -ibus; Mulciber, genitive -berī and -beris; sequester, genitive -trī and -tris; vās, vāsis, and (old) vāsum, -ī (§ 79. e).
- c. Some vary between the Second, Third, and Fourth: as, penus, penum, genitive penī and penoris, ablative penū.
 - d. Many nouns vary between the First and Fifth (see § 98. c).
- e. Some vary between the Third and Fifth. Thus, requies has genitive -ētis, dative wanting, accusative -ētem or -em, ablative -ē (once -ēte); famēs, regularly of the third declension, has ablative famē (§ 76. N. 1), and pūbēs (M.) has once dative pūbē (in Plautus).
- f. Pecus varies between the Third and Fourth, having pecoris, etc., but also nominative pecu, ablative pecu; plural pecus, genitive pecuum.
- g. Many vary between different stems of the same declension: as, femur (n.), genitive -oris, also -inis (as from †femen); iecur (n.), genitive iecinoris, iecinoris, iecoris; mūnus (n.), plural mūnera and mūnia.
- 1 The ablative plural oribus is rare, the classical idiom being in ore omnium, in everybody's mouth, etc., not in oribus omnium.
- ² The genitive plural ossium is late; ossuum (from ossua, plural of a neuter u-stem) is early and late.
 - * An old nominative daps is cited.
 - 4 That is, "nouns of different inflections" (ξτερος, another, and κλίνω, to inflect).

- 106. Nouns that vary in Gender are said to be heterogeneous.1
- a. The following have a masculine form in -us and a neuter in -um: balteus, cāseus, clipeus, collum, cingulum, pīleus, tergum, vāllum, with many others of rare occurrence.
- **b.** The following have in the Plural a different gender from that of the Singular:—

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balneum (N.), bath;
                            balneae (f.), baths (an establishment).
caelum (N.), heaven;
                            caelos (m. acc., Lucr.).
carbasus (F.), a sail;
                            carbasa (N.) (-ōrum), sails.
dēlicium (N.), pleasure;
                            děliciae (F.), pet.
epulum (N.), feast;
                            epulae (F.), feast.
frēnum (N.), a bit;
                            frēnī (m.) or frēna (n.), a bridle.
iocus (M.), a jest;
                            ioca (N.), iocI(M.), jests.
locus (M.), place;
                            loca (N.), locī (M., usually topics, passages in books).
rāstrum (N.), a rake;
                            rāstrī (M.), rāstra (N.), rakes.
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Note. - Some of these nouns are heteroclites as well as heterogeneous.

107. Many nouns are found in the Plural in a peculiar sense: —

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aedēs, -is (F.), temple;
                                        aedēs, -ium, house.
                                        aquae, mineral springs, a watering-place.
aqua (f.), water;
auxilium (N.), help;
                                        auxilia, auxiliaries.
bonum (n.), a good;
                                        bona, goods, property.
carcer (m.), dungeon;
                                        carcerēs, barriers (of race-course).
castrum (N.), fort;
                                        castra, camp.
comitium (N.), place of assembly;
                                        comitia, an election (town-meeting).
copia (f.), plenty;
                                        copiae, stores, troops.
fidēs (f.), harp-string;
                                        fidēs, lyre.
finis (m.), end;
                                        finēs, bounds, territories.
fortūna (F.), fortune;
                                        fortūnae, possessions.
grātia (f.), favor (rarely, thanks);
                                       grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces).
                                        horti, pleasure-grounds.
hortus (M.), a garden;
impedimentum (N.) hindrance;
                                       impedimenta, baggage.
littera (f.), letter (of alphabet);
                                       litterae, epistle, literature.
locus (M.), place [plural loca (N.)];
                                       locī,<sup>2</sup> topics, places in books.
lūdus (M.), sport;
                                       lūdī, public games.
                                       mores, character.
mos (m.), habit, custom;
nātālis (м.), birthday;
                                       nātālēs, descent, origin.
opera (F.), work;
                                        operae, day-laborers ("hands").
[ops,] opis (F.), help (§ 103. f. 1);
                                       opës, resources, wealth.
pars (f.), part;
                                       partes, part (on the stage), party.
röstrum (n.), beak of a ship;
                                       röstra, speaker's platform.
sal (m. or n.), salt;
                                        salēs, witticisms.
tabella (F.), tablet;
                                       tabellae, documents, records.
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² In early writers the regular plural.

¹ That is, "of different genders" (ξτερος, another, and γένος, gender).

NAMES OF PERSONS

108. A Roman had regularly three names:—(1) the praenomen, or personal name; (2) the nomen, or name of the gens or house; (3) the cognomen, or family name:—

Thus in Mārcus Tullius Cicero we have —

Mārcus, the praenomen, like our Christian or given name;

Tullius, the nomen, properly an adjective denoting of the Tullian gens (or house) whose original head was a real or supposed Tullus;

Cicero, the cognomen, or family name, often in origin a nickname, — in this case from cicer, a vetch, or small pea.

Note. — When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the $c\bar{o}gn\bar{o}$ -men is usually put in the plural: as, Pūblius et Servius Sullae.

a. A fourth or fifth name was sometimes given as a mark of honor or distinction, or to show adoption from another $g\bar{e}ns$.

Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Püblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Āfricānus Aemiliānus: Āfricānus, from his exploits in Africa; Aemiliānus, as adopted from the Æmilian $g\bar{\epsilon}ns.^1$

Note. — The Romans of the classical period had no separate name for these additions, but later grammarians invented the word $\bar{a}gn\bar{o}men$ to express them.

b. Women had commonly in classical times no personal names, but were known only by the $n\bar{v}men$ of their $g\bar{e}ns$.

Thus, the wife of Cicero was Terentia, and his daughter Tullia. A second daughter would have been called Tullia secunda or minor, a third daughter, Tullia tertia, and so on.

c. The commonest prænomens are thus abbreviated: —

A. Aulus.	L. Lūcius.	Q. Quintus.
App. (Ap.) Appius.	M. Mārcus.	Ser. Servius.
C. (G.) Gāius (Caius) (cf. § 1. a).	M'. Mānius.	Sex. (S.) Sextus.
Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (Cneius).	Mām. Māmercus.	Sp. Spurius.
D. Decimus.	N. (Num.) Numerius	T. Titus.
K. Kaesō (Caeso).	P. Pūblius.	Ti. (Tib.) Tiberius.

NOTE 1.—In the abbreviations C. and Cn., the initial character has the value of G (\S 1. a).

In stating officially the full name of a Roman it was customary to include the praenomina of the father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, together with the name of the tribe to which the individual belonged. Thus in an inscription we find M. TVL-LIVS M. F. M. N. M. PR. COR. CICERO, i.e. Mārcus Tullius Mārcī fīlius Mārcī nepos Mārcī pronepos Cornēliā tribū Cicero. The names of grandfather and great-grandfather as well as that of the tribe are usually omitted in literature. The name of a wife or daughter is usually accompanied by that of the husband or father in the genitive: as, Postumia Servī Sulpiciī (Suet. Iul. 50), Postumia, wife of Servius Sulpicius; Caecilia Metellī (Div. i. 104), Caecilia, daughter of Metellus.

ADJECTIVES

- 109. Adjectives and Participles are in general formed and declined like Nouns, differing from them only in their use.
- 1. In accordance with their use, they distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case. Thus,—

bonus puer, the good boy. bona puella, the good girl. bonum donum, the good gift.

2. In their inflection they are either (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS (ā- AND o-STEMS)

110. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions (ā- and o-stems) are declined in the Masculine like servus, puer, or ager; in the Feminine like stella; and in the Neuter like bellum.

The regular type of an adjective of the First and Second Declensions is bonus, -a, -um, which is thus declined:—

bonus, bona, bonum, good

	MASCULINE STEM bono-	FEMININE STEM bonā-	NEUTER STEM bono-
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	bon us	bon a	bon um
GEN.	bonī	bon ae	bonī
DAT.	bon ō	bon ae	bon ō
Acc.	bon um	bon am	bonum
ABL.	bon ō	bon ā	b on ō
Voc.	bon e	bon a	bon um
		PLURAL	
Non.	bon	bonae	bon a
GEN.	bon ōrum	bon ārum	bon ōrum
DAT.	bon īs	bon is	bon īs
Acc.	bon ōs	bon ās	bon a
ABL.	bon īs	bon is	bon īs

Note. — Stems in quo- have nominative -cus (-quos), -qua, -cum (-quom), accusative -cum (-quom), -quam, -cum (-quom), to avoid quu- (see §§ 6. b and 46. N. 2). Thus, —

Nom. propincus (-quos)

propinqua

propinoum (-quom)

GEN. propinqui

propinquae

propinqui, etc.

But most modern editions disregard this principle.

a. The Genitive Singular masculine of adjectives in -ius ends in -ii, and the Vocative in -ie; not in - \bar{i} , as in nouns (cf. § 49. b, c); as, Lacedaemonius, -iī, -ie.

Note. — The possessive meus, my, has the vocative masculine mi (cf. § 145).

111. Stems ending in re-preceded by e form the Nominative Masculine like puer (§ 47) and are declined as follows:—

miser, misera, miserum, wretched

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
	STEM misero-	STEM miserā-	STEM misero-
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	miser	misera	miserum
Gen.	miser ī	miserae	miser ī
Dat.	miser ō	miserae	miser ō
Acc.	miser um	miseram	miserum
Abl.	miser ō	miserā	miscrō
		PLURAL	
Nom.	miserī	miser ae	misera
GEN.	miser ōrum	miser ārum	miser ōrum
DAT.	miserīs	miser īs	miser īs
Acc.	miser ōs	miser ās	misera
ABL.	miserīs	miser īs	miser īs

a. Like miser are declined asper, gibber, lacer, liber, prosper (also prosperus), satur (-ura, -urum), tener, with compounds of -fer and -ger: as, saetiger, -era, -erum, bristle-bearing; also, usually, dexter. In these the e belongs to the stem; but in dextra it is often omitted: as, dextra manus, the right hand.

Note. — Stems in ēro- (as prēcērus), with morigērus, propērus, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.

b. The following lack a nominative singular masculine in classic use: cētera, infera, postera, supera. They are rarely found in the singular except in certain phrases: as, postero die, the next day.

Note. — An ablative feminine in -ō is found in a few Greek adjectives: as, lectica octophoro (Verr. v. 27).

112. Stems in ro-preceded by a consonant form the Nominative Masculine like ager (§ 47) and are declined as follows:—

niger, nigra, nigrum, black

	MASCULINE Stem nigro-	feminin e Stem nigrā-	NEUTER STEM nigro-
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	niger	nigra	ni grum
GEN.	nigr ī	nigrae	nigr ī
DAT.	nigr ō	nigrae	nigr ō
Acc.	nigrum	n igram	nigrum
ABL.	nigr ō	nigr ā	nigr ō
		PLURAL	
Nom.	nigr ī	nigr ae	nigra
GEN.	nigr ōrum	nigr ārum	nigr ōrum
DAT.	nigr īs	nigr īs	ni grīs
Acc.	nigr ōs	nigr ās	ni g ra
ABL.	nigr īs	nigr īs	nigr īs

- a. Like niger are declined aeger, ater, creber, faber, glaber, integer, ludicer, macer, piger, pulcher, ruber, sacer, scaber, sinister, taeter, vafer; also the possessives noster, vester (§ 145).
- 113. The following nine adjectives with their compounds have the Genitive Singular in -īus and the Dative in -ī in all genders:

alius (N. aliud), other. tõtus, whole. alter, -terius, the other. nüllus, no, none. üllus, any. neuter, -trius, neither. sõlus, alone. ünus, one. uter, -trius, which (of two).

Of these the singular is thus declined:—

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	ũn us	ūn a	ūn um	uter	utra	utr um
GEN.	ūn īus	ūn īus	ũn īus	utr īus	utr īus	utr īus
DAT.	ūn ī	ūn ī	ũn ï	utrī	utr ī	utrī
Acc.	ūn um	ūn am	ũn um	utr um	utram	utr um
ABL.	ūn ō	ūn ā	ūn ō	utr ō	utr ā	utr ō
Nom.	alius	alia	aliud	alter	alter a	alterum
GEN.	alīus	alīus	alīus	alter īus	alter īus	alter īus
DAT.	ali ī	ali ī	aliī	a lter ī	alteri	alterī
Acc.	alium	aliam	aliud	alterum	alteram	alterum
ABL.	aliō	ali ā	aliō	alter ō	alterā	alterō

- a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus (§ 110).
- b. The genitive in -īus, dative in -ī, and neuter in -d are pronominal in origin (cf. illīus, illī, illud, and § 146).
- c. The i of the genitive ending -īus, though originally long, may be made short in verse; so often in alterius and regularly in utriusque.
- d. Instead of alīus, alterius is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective alienus, belonging to another, another's.
- e. In compounds as alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alteri utri or alterutri, to one of the two.

NOTE. — The regular genitive and dative forms (as in bonus) are sometimes found in some of these words: as, genitive and dative feminine, aliae; dative masculine, alio. Rare forms are alis and alid (for alius, aliud).

THIRD DECLENSION (CONSONANT AND i-STEMS)

- 114. Adjectives of the Third Declension are thus classified:—
- 1. Adjectives of Three Terminations in the nominative singular, one for each gender: as, ācer, ācris, ācre.
- 2. Adjectives of Two Terminations, masculine and feminine the same: as, levis (M., F.), leve (N.).
- 3. Adjectives of One Termination, the same for all three genders: as, atrōx.
- a. Adjectives of two and three terminations are true i-stems and hence retain in the ablative singular -ī, in the neuter plural -ia, in the genitive plural -ium, and in the accusative plural regularly -is (see §§ 73 and 74).1

Adjectives of Three and of Two Terminations

115. Adjectives of Three Terminations are thus declined:—

ācer, ācris, ācre, keen, Stem ācri-

	Sı	NGULAR		PLURAL			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	. N.	
Nom.	ācer	ācr is	ācre	ācr ēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia	
GEN.	ācr is	ācr is	ācr is	ācr ium	ācrium	ācr ium	
DAT.	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	
Acc.	ācrem	ācr em	ācre	ācr īs (-ēs)	ācr īs (-ēs)	ācria	
ABL.	ācrī	ā crī	ācrī	ācr ibus	ācribus	ācribus	

¹ But the forms of some are doubtful.

PLURAL

a. Like acer are declined the following stems in ri-: --

alacer, campester, celeber, equester, palüster, pedester, puter, salüber, silvester, terrester, volucer. So also names of months in -ber: as, October (cf. § 66).

Note 1.—This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets and in early Latin, either the masculine or the feminine form of these adjectives was sometimes used for both genders: as, coetus alacris (Enn.). In others, as faenebris, fünebris, illūstris, lūgubris, mediocris, muliebris, there is no separate masculine form at all, and these are declined like levis (§ 116).

NOTE 2.—Celer, celeris, celere, swift, has the genitive plural celerum, used only as a noun, denoting a military rank. The proper name Celer has the ablative in -e.

116. Adjectives of Two Terminations are thus declined:—

levis, leve, light, Stem levi-

M., F. N. N. M., F. levēs levia Nom. levis lev**e** levium levium GEN. levis levis levibus DAT. levī levī levibus lev**em** lev**is** (-ēs) levia lev**e** Acc. levibus levibus levī levī ABL.

Note. — Adjectives of two and three terminations sometimes have an ablative in in poetry, rarely in prose.

Adjectives of One Termination

- 117. The remaining adjectives of the third declension are Consonant stems; but most of them, except Comparatives, have the following forms of i-stems:—1
 - -ī in the ablative singular (but often -e);

SINGULAR

- -ia in the nominative and accusative plural neuter;
- -ium in the genitive plural;
- -is (as well as -es) in the accusative plural masculine and feminine.

In the other cases they follow the rule for Consonant stems.

- a. These adjectives, except stems in 1- or r-, form the nominative singular from the stem by adding s: as, atrox (stem atroc-+s), egens (stem egent-+s).²
- 5. Here belong the present participles in -ns(stem nt-)²: as, amāns, monēns. They are declined like egēns (but cf. § 121).

¹ For details see § 121.
² Stems in nt- omit t before the nominative -s.

118. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows:—

	atrox, fierce, St	EM atroc-	egēns, needy, Stem egent-		
		SINGULAR			
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
Nom.	atrōx	atrōx	egēn s	· egēn s	
GEN.	atrocis	atrōc is	egent is	egent is	
DAT.	atrōcī	atrōc ī	egent ī	egent ī	
Acc.	atrōcem	atrōx	egentem	egēn s	
ABL.	atrōcī (-e)	atrōcī (-e)	egenti (-e)	egent I (-e)	
		PLURAL			
Nom.	atrōcēs	atrōc ia	egent ēs	egentia	
GEN.	atrōcium	atrōcium	egentium	egentium	
DAT.	atrōcibus	atrōc ibus	egent ibus	egentibus	
Acc.	atrocīs (-ēs)	atrōc ia	egent īs (-ēs)	egentia	
ABL.	atrocibus	atrocibus	egentibus	egentibus	

119. Other examples are the following:—

	concors, harm		praeceps, headlong STEM praecipit-		
	•	SINGULA	. R		
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL.	concors concordis concordi concordem concordi	concors concordis concordi concors concordi	praeceps praecipitis praecipitī praecipitem praecipitī	praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praeceps praecipiti	
		PLURAL			
Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL.	concordēs concordibus concordīs (-ēs) concordibus	concordia concordibus concordia concordibus	praecipit ēs [praecipi praecipit ibus praecipit īs (- ēs) praecipit ibus	praecipitia tium] ¹ praecipitibus praecipitia praecipitibus	

¹ Given by grammarians, but not found.

veterum

veteribus

veteribus

vetera

veterum

veterēs

veteribus

veteribus

	i ēns, <i>going</i> Stem eunt-			pār, equal Stem par-		dives , <i>rich</i> Stem divit-				
						Singula	R			
		M., F.		N.		M., F.	N.	M., F.	•	N.
Non	4. 5	ēn s		iēn s		pār	pär	dīve s		dīves
GEN	٧. (eunt is		eunt is		par is	paris	dīvitis	3	dīvit is
DAT	г. (eunt ī		eunt i		parī	parī	dīvit ī		dīvit ī
Acc	. (eun tem		iēn s		parem	pār	dīvite	m Ì	dīve s
ABI	L.	eunt e (-I))	eunte (-I))	parf	parī	dīvit e		dīvit e
						Plural	,			
No	A. (eunt ēs		eunt ia		parēs	paria	dīvit ē	5	[dīt ia]
		euntium		parium	parium	dīvitu		dīvitum		
DAT. euntibus euntibus			par ibus	paribus	dīvit it	auc	dīvitibus			
Acc	3. (eunt īs (-	58)	euntia		par is (-ēs)	paria	dīvit ī s	(-ēs)	[dītia]
Аві	L. (eunt ibus		eunt ibus		paribus	p aribus	dīvitik	arc	dīvit ibus
								•		
			ū	er, fertile			•	vetus, old	i	
STEM über-				Stem veter-						
						SINGULA	R			
		М.,	, F.		N	•	м.,	F.	N.	
	Nom. über		er	- ū ber		r	vetus		vetus	,
	G	en. übe	ris	ūber is		ris	veter is		veter	is
	DAT. überī		ū ber ī		rī	veterī		veter	ſ	
	Acc. überen		n î	ibe	r	v eter em		vetus	,	
	A	вг. übe	er ī 1	្	ibe	r ī ¹	veter	re (-ī)	veter	e (- I)
						PLURAL			•	
	No	ом. übe	erēs	, i	ābe	ra	vete	rēs	veter	a
		_ •		_						

Note. — Of these vetus is originally an s-stem. In most s-stems the r has intruded itself into the nominative also, as bi-corpor (for †bi-corpos), degener (for †de-genes).

ūber**um**

ūber**ibus**

ūber**ibus**

ūbera

GEN.

DAT.

Acc.

ABL.

ūber**um**

ūber**ēs**

ūber**ibus**

ūberibus

¹ An ablative in -e is very rare.

Declension of Comparatives

120. Comparatives are declined as follows: —

melior, <i>better</i> Stem meliōr- for meliōs-			plüs, <i>more</i> Stem plür- for pl äs-					
SINGULAR								
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.				
Nom.	melior	melius		plūs				
GEN.	meliōr is	meliõr is		plū̃r is				
DAT.	meliōr ī	meliōr ī						
Acc.	meliōr em	melius	 :	plūs				
ABL.	meliōr e (- ī)	meliōr e (-I)	» (A **	plūre				
		PLURAL	_*.					
Non.	meliõr ēs	meliõr a	pl ür ēs	pl ūra				
GEN.	meliōr um	meliōr um	plürium	plūr ium				
DAT.	meliōr ibus	meliōr ibus	plūr ibus	plūr ibus				
Acc.	meliōr ēs (-īs)	meliõr a	plūrēs (-īs)	plūr a				
ABL.	meli õribus	meliōr ibus	plūribus	plūr ibus				

- a. All comparatives except plus are declined like melior.
- b. The stem of comparatives properly ended in 5s-; but this became or in the nominative masculine and feminine, and 5r- in all other cases except the nominative and accusative singular neuter, where s is retained and 5 is changed to 1 (cf. honor, -ōris; corpus, -ŏris). Thus comparatives appear to have two terminations.
- c. The neuter singular plus is used only as a noun. The genitive (rarely the ablative) is used only as an expression of value (cf. § 417). The dative is not found in classic use. The compound complures, several, has sometimes neuter plural compluria.

Case-Forms of Consonant Stems

- 121. In adjectives of Consonant stems —
- a. The Ablative Singular commonly ends in -I, but sometimes -e.
- 1. Adjectives used as nouns (as superstes, survivor) have -e.
- 2. Participles in -ns used as such (especially in the ablative absolute, § 419), or as nouns, regularly have -e; but participles used as adjectives have regularly -ī:—

domino imperante, at the master's command; ab amante, by a lover; ab amantimuliere, by a loving woman.

- 3. The following have regularly -ī: —āmēns, anceps, concors (and other compounds of cor), consors (but as a substantive, -e), degener, hebes, ingēns, inops, memor (and compounds), pār (in prose), perpes, praeceps, praeceps, teres.
- 4. The following have regularly-e:—caeles, compos, [†dēses], dīves, hospes, particeps, pauper, prīnceps, sōspes, superstes. So also patrials (see § 71.5) and stems in āt-, īt-, nt-, rt-, when used as nouns, and sometimes when used as adjectives.
- **b.** The Genitive Plural ends commonly in -ium, but has -um in the following: 1—
- 1. Always in compos, dives, inops, particeps, praepes, princeps, supplex, and compounds of nouns which have -um: as, quadru-pēs, bi-color.
- 2. Sometimes, in poetry, in participles in -ns: as, silentum concilium, a council of the silent shades (Aen. vi. 432).
- c. The Accusative Plural regularly ends in -īs, but comparatives commonly have -ēs.
- d. Vetus (gen.-ĕris) and pūbes (gen.-ĕris) regularly have -e in the ablative singular, -a in the nominative and accusative plural, and -um in the genitive plural. For ūber, see § 119.
- e. A few adjectives of one termination, used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, clienta, hospita, with the appellative Iūnō Sōspita.

Irregularities and Special Uses of Adjectives

- 122. The following special points require notice:—
- a. Several adjectives vary in declension: as, gracilis (-us), hilaris (-us), in rmis (-us), bicolor (-ōrus).
- of service, see § 382. 1. N. 2), nequam (originally an adverb), necesse, and the pronominal forms tot, quot, aliquot, totidem. Potis is often used as an indeclinable adjective, but sometimes has pote in the neuter.
- c. Several adjectives are defective: as, exspēs (only nom.), exlēx (exlēgem) (only nom. and acc. sing.), pernox (pernocte) (only nom. and abl. sing.); and prīmōris, sēminecī, etc., which lack the nominative singular.
- d. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. These may be called adjectives of common gender.

Such are adulescens, youthful; [†deses], -idis, slothful; inops, -opis, poor; sospes, -itis, safe. Similarly, senex, old man, and iuvenis, young man, are sometimes called masculine adjectives.

For Adjectives used as Nouns, see §§ 288, 289; for Nouns used as Adjectives, see § 321. c; for Adjectives used as Adverbs, see § 214; for Adverbs used as Adjectives, see § 321. d.

¹ Forms in -um sometimes occur in a few others.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

- 123. In Latin, as in English, there are three degrees of comparison: the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.
- 124. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius), the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um), to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel:—

cārus, dear (stem cāro-); cārior, dearer; cārissimus, dearest.
levis, light (stem levi-); levior, lighter; levissimus, lightest.
fēlīx, happy (stem fēlīc-); fēlīcior, happier; fēlīcissimus, happiest.
hebes, dull (stem hebet-); hebetior, duller; hebetissimus, dullest.

Note.—A form of diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives: as, grandius-culus, a little larger (see § 243).

- a. Participles when used as adjectives are regularly compared:—
 patiens, patient; patientior, patientissimus.
 apertus, open; apertior, apertissimus.
- 125. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by adding -rimus to the nominative. The comparative is regular:—

ācer, keen; ācrior, ācerrimus. miser, wretched; miserior, miserrimus.

a. So vetus (gen. veteris) has superlative veterrimus, from the old form veter; and mātūrus, besides its regular superlative (mātūrissimus), has a rare form mātūrrimus.

For the comparative of vetus, vetustior (from vetustus) is used.

126. Six adjectives in -lis form the Superlative by adding -limus to the stem clipped of its final i-. These are facilis, difficilis, similis, dissimilis, gracilis, humilis.

facilis (stem facili-), easy; facilior, facillimus.

127. Compounds in -dicus (saying) and -volus (willing) take in their comparison the forms of the corresponding participles dicens and volens, which were anciently used as adjectives:—

maledicus, slanderous; maledicentior, maledicentissimus. malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.

¹ The comparative suffix (earlier -iōs) is akin to the Greek - $l\omega\nu$, or the Sanskrit -iyans. That of the superlative (-issimus) is a double form of uncertain origin. It appears to contain the is- of the old suffix -is-to-s (seen in $\eta\delta$ - $l\sigma\tau_0$ -s and English sweetest) and also the old -mo-s (seen in prī-mus, mini-mus, etc.). The endings -limus and -rimus are formed by assimilation (§ 15. 6) from -simus. The comparative and superlative are really new stems, and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.

- a. So, by analogy, compounds in -ficus: māgnificus, grand; māgnificentior, māgnificentissimus.
- 128. Some adjectives are compared by means of the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most.

So especially adjectives in -us preceded by e or i:—
idōneus, fit; magis idōneus, maximē idōneus.

Note.—But pius has piissimus in the superlative,—a form condemned by Cicero, but common in inscriptions; equally common, however, is the irregular pientissimus.

Irregular Comparison

129. Several adjectives have in their comparison irregular forms:—

bonus, good; melior, better; optimus, best. malus, bad; peior, worse; pessimus, worst. maior, greater; māgnus, great; maximus, greatest. parvus, small; minor, less; minimus, least. plūs (n.) (§ 120), more; plūrimus, most. multus, much; plūrēs, more; multi, many; plūrimī, most. nēquam (indecl., § 122. b), nēquior; nēquissimus. worthless; frügi (indecl., § 122. b), use- frügälior; frügālissimus. ful, worthy; dexter, on the right, handy; dexterior; dextimus.

Note. — These irregularities arise from the use of different stems (cf. § 127). Thus frügālior and frügālissimus are formed from the stem frügāli-, but are used as the comparative and superlative of the indeclinable frügī.

Defective Comparison

130. Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive:—

öcior, swifter; öcissimus, swiftest.
potior, preferable; 1 potissimus, most important.

a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives: 2—

The old positive potis occurs in the sense of able, possible.

² The forms in -trā and -terus were originally comparative (cf. alter), so that the comparatives in -terior are double comparatives. Inferus and superus are comparatives of a still more primitive form (cf. the English comparative in -er).

The superlatives in -timus (-tumus) are relics of old forms of comparison; those in -mus like imus, summus, primus, are still more primitive. Forms like extrēmus are superlatives of a comparative. In fact, comparison has always been treated with an accumulation of endings, as children say furtherer and furtherest.

cis, citra (adv., on this side): citerior, hither; citimus, hithermost. dē (prep., down): deterior, worse; dēterrimus, worst. in, intra (prep., in, within): interior, inner; intimus, inmost. prior, former; primus, first. prae, pro (prep., before): prope (adv., near): propior, nearer; proximus, next. ultrā (adv., beyond): ulterior, farther; ultimus, farthest.

b. Of the following the positive forms are rare, except when used as nouns (generally in the plural):—

exterus, outward; exterior, outer; extrēmus (extimus), outmost. Inferus, below (see § 111. b); Inferior, lower; infimus (Imus), lowest. posterus, following; posterior, latter; postrēmus (postumus), last. superus, above; superior, higher; suprēmus or summus, highest.

But the plurals, exteri, foreigners; inferi, the gods below; posteri, posterity; superi, the heavenly gods, are common.

Note. — The superlative postumus has the special sense of *last-born*, and was a well-known surname.

- 131. Several adjectives lack the Comparative or the Superlative:
 - a. The Comparative is rare or wanting in the following:

bellus, inclutus (or inclitus), novus, caesius, invictus, pius, falsus, invītus, invītus, sacer, fīdus (with its compounds), meritus, vafer.

b. The Superlative is wanting in many adjectives in -ilis or -bilis (as, agilis, probābilis), and in the following:—

āctuōsus	exīlis	prōclīvis	surdus
agrestis	ingēn s	propinquus	tacitumus
alacer	iēiūnu s	satur	tempestīvus
arcānus	longinquus	sēgnis	teres
caecus	oblīquu s	sērus	vicinus
diūturnus	opimu s	supīnus	

c. From iuvenis, youth, senex, old man (cf. § 122. d), are formed the comparatives iunior, younger, senior, older. For these, however, minor natu and maior natu are sometimes used (natu being often omitted).

The superlative is regularly expressed by minimus and maximus, with or without nātū.

Note. — In these phrases natu is ablative of specification (see § 418).

d. Many adjectives (as aureus, golden) are from their meaning incapable of comparison.

NOTE.—But each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus, niger, glossy black, and candidus, shining white, are compared; but not atter or albus, meaning absolute dead black or white (except that Plautus once has atrior).

NUMERALS

- 132. The Latin Numerals may be classified as follows:—
- I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES:
- 1. Cardinal Numbers, answering the question how many? as, unus, one; duo, two, etc.
- 2. Ordinal Numbers, adjectives derived (in most cases) from the Cardinals, and answering the question which in order? as, primus, first; secundus, second, etc.
- 3. Distributive Numerals, answering the question how many at a time? as, singuli, one at a time; bini, two by two, etc.
- II. NUMERAL ADVERBS, answering the question how often? as, semel, once; bis, twice, etc.

Cardinals and Ordinals

133. These two series are as follows:—

	CARDINAL	ORDINAL	ROMAN NUMERALS
1.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum, one	primus, -a, -um, <i>first</i>	1
2.	duo, duae, duo, two	secundus (alter), second	11
3.	trēs, tria, three	tertius, third	. 111
4.	quattuor	quārtus	IIII or iv
5.	quinque	quintus	v
6.	sex	sextus	VI
7.	septem	septimus	VII
8.	octō	octāvus	VIII
9.	novem	nōnus	VIIII or ix
10.	decem	decimus	x
11.	ündecim	ūndecimus	XI
12 .	duodecim	duodecimus	XII
13 .	tredecim (decem (et) tres)	tertius decimus (decimus (et)	tertius) x111
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	XIIII or XIV
15.	quindecim	quīntus decimus	XV.
16.	sēdecim	sextus decimus	XVI
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	XVII
18.	duodēvīgintī (octōdecim)	duodēvicēnsimus (octāvus de	cimus) xvIII

¹ The Ordinals (except secundus, tertius, octāvus, nonus) are formed by means of suffixes related to those used in the superlative and in part identical with them. Thus, decimus (compare the form infimus) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; primus is a superlative of a stem akin to pro; the forms in-tus (quartus, quintus, sextus) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in -τος, and with superlatives in -ισ-το-ς, while the others have the superlative ending-timus (changed to-simus). Of the exceptions, secundus is a participle of sequor; alter is a comparative form (compare -τερος in Greek), and nonus is contracted from †novenos. The cardinal multiples of ten are compounds of -gint-'ten' (a fragment of a derivative from decem).

	CARDINAL	ORDINAL	ROMAN NUMERALS
19.	undeviginti (novendecim)	ūndēvicēnsimus (nonus dec	cimus) xviiii or xix
20.	vīgintī	vīcēnsimus (vīgēnsimus)	XX
21.	vīgintī ūnus	vīcēnsimus prīmus	IXX
	(or unus et viginti, etc.)	(ūnus et vicēnsimus, etc.)	
30.	trīgintā	trīcēnsimus	XXX
40 .	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēnsimus	XXXX or XL
50.	quīnquāgintā	quinquāgēnsimus	↓ or L
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēnsimus	· LX
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēnsim us	LXX
80.	octōgintā	octōgēnsimus	LXXX
90.	nōnāgintā	nonāgēnsimus	LXXXX or XC
100.	centum	centēnsimus	C
101.	centum (et) ūnus, etc.	centēnsimus prīmus, etc.	CI
200.	ducenti, -ae, -a	ducentēnsimus	CC
300.	trecenti	trecentēnsimus	CCC
400.	quadringentI	quadringentēnsimus	CCCC
500.	quingenti	quingentēnsimus	D
600 .	sescenti	sescentēnsimus	DC
700.	septingenti	septingentēnsimus	DCC
800.	octingentI	octingentēnsimus	DCCC
96 0.	nongenti	nongentēnsimus	DCCCC
1000.	mīlle	mīllēnsimus	∞ (CIO) or M
500 0.	quinque milia (millia)	quinquiēns millēnsimus	ccı
10,000.	decem mīlia (mīllia)	deciēns mīllēnsimus	ccioo
100,000.	centum mīlia (mīllia)	centiēns mīllēnsimus	CCCIDOD

Note 1. — The forms in -ensimus are often written without the n: as, vicesimus, etc. Note 2. — The forms octodecim, novendecim are rare, duodeviginti (two from twenty), undeviginti (one from twenty), being used instead. So 28, 29; 38, 39; etc. may be expressed either by the subtraction of two and one or by the addition of eight and nine respectively.

Declension of Cardinals and Ordinals

- 134. Of the Cardinals only unus, duo, tres, the hundreds above one hundred, and mille when used as a noun, are declinable.
- a. For the declension of unus, see § 113. It often has the meaning of same or only. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, to agree with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, una castra, one camp (cf. § 137. b). The plural occurs also in the phrase uni et alteri, one party and the other (the ones and the others).
 - b. Duo, two, and tres, three, are thus declined: —

¹ The form in -o is a remnant of the dual number, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages. So in ambō, both, which preserves $-\bar{o}$ (cf. $\delta \dot{\nu} \omega$ and § 629. b).

	x.	F.	N.	M., F.	N.
Non.	du o	duae	duo	trēs	tria
GEN.	du ōrum	du ārum	du õrum	tr ium	trium
DAT.	du õbus	du ābus	du õbus	t ribus	tribus
Acc.	du ōs (du o)	du ās	du o	trēs (trīs)	tria
ABL.	du ōbus	du ābus	du õbus	tribus	tribus

Note. — Ambo, both, is declined like duo.

- c. The hundreds, up to 1000, are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are regularly declined like the plural of bonus.
 - d. Mille, a thousand, is in the singular an indeclinable adjective:—mille modis, in a thousand ways.

cum mille hominibus, with a thousand men.

mīlle trahēns varios colores (Aen. iv. 701), drawing out a thousand various colors.

In the plural it is used as a neuter noun, and is declined like the plural of sedile (§ 69): milia, milium, milibus, etc.

Note.—The singular mille is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, mille hominum misit, he sent a thousand (of) men; in the other cases rarely, except in connection with the same case of milia: as, cum octo milibus peditum, mille equitum, with eight thousand foot and a thousand horse.

e. The ordinals are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are regularly declined like bonus.

135. Cardinals and Ordinals have the following uses: —

- a. In numbers below 100, if units precede tens, et is generally inserted: duo et viginti; otherwise et is omitted: viginti duo.
- b. In numbers above 100 the highest denomination generally stands first, the next second, etc., as in English. Et is either omitted entirely, or stands between the two highest denominations:—mille (et) septingenti sexāgintā quattuor, 1764.

Note. — Observe the following combinations of numerals with substantives: — unus et viginti milites, or viginti milites (et) unus, 21 soldiers. duo milia quingenti milites, or duo milia militum et quingenti, 2500 soldiers. milites mille ducenti triginta unus, 1231 soldiers.

- c. After mīlia the name of the objects enumerated is in the genitive: duo mīlia hominum, two thousand men.¹ cum tribus mīlitum, with three thousand soldiers. mīlia passuum tria, three thousand paces (three miles).
- d. For million, billion, trillion, etc., the Romans had no special words, but these numbers were expressed by multiplication (cf. § 138. a).

¹ Or, in poetry, bis mille homines, twice a thousand men.

e. Fractions are expressed, as in English, by cardinals in the numerator and ordinals in the denominator. The feminine gender is used to agree with pars expressed or understood:—two-sevenths, duae septimae (sc. partës); three-eighths, trës octavae (sc. partës).

One-half is dimidia pars or dimidium.

Note 1.— When the numerator is one, it is omitted and pars is expressed: one-third, tertia pars; one-fourth, quarta pars.

Note 2. — When the denominator is but one greater than the numerator, the numerator only is given: two-thirds, duae partes; three-fourths, tres partes, etc.

Note 3.—Fractions are also expressed by special words derived from as, a pound: as, triens, a third; bes, two-thirds. See § 637.

Distributives

136. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of bonus.

NOTE.—These answer to the interrogative quoteni, how many of each? or how many at a time?

1.	singuli, one by one	18.	octoni deni or duo-	100.	centēnī
2.	bīnī, two by two		dēvīcēnī	200.	ducēnī
3.	ternī, trīnī	19.	novēnī dēnī or ūn-	300.	trecēnī
4.	quaternī		dēvīcēnī	400.	quadringēnī
5.	quini	20.	vīcēnī	500.	quingēni
6.	sēnī	21.	vīcēnī singulī, etc.	600.	sescēnī
7.	septēnī	30.	trīcēnī	700.	septingēnī
8.	octōnī	4 0.	quadrāgēnī	800.	octingēnī
9.	novēnī	50.	quīnquāgēnī	900.	nōngēnī
10.	dēnī	60.	sexāgēnī	1000.	mīllēnī
11.	ūndēnī	70.	septuāgēnī	2000.	bīna mīlia
12 .	duodēnī	80.	octōgēnī	10,000.	dēna mīlia
13.	ternī dēnī, etc.	90.	nonageni	100,000.	centēna mīlia

137. Distributives are used as follows:—

- a. In the sense of so many apiece or on each side: as, singula singulis, one apiece (one each to each one); agrī septēna iūgera plēbī dīvīsa sunt, i.e. seven jugera to each citizen (seven jugera each), etc.
- b. Instead of cardinals, to express simple number, when a noun plural in form but usually singular in meaning is used in a plural sense: as, bīna castra, two camps (duo castra would mean two forts). With such nouns trīnī, not ternī, is used for three: as, trīna (not terna) castra, three camps; terna castra means camps in threes.
- c. In multiplication: as, bis bīna, twice two; ter septēnīs diēbus, in thrice seven days.
- d. By the poets instead of cardinal numbers, particularly where pairs or sets are spoken of: as, bina hastilia, two shafts (two in a set).

Numeral Adverbs

138. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question quotiens (quoties), how many times? how often?

1.	semel, once	12.	duodeciēns	40.	quadrāgiēns
2.	bis, twice	13.	terdeciēns	50.	quinquāgiēns
3.	ter, thrice	14.	quaterdeciēns	60.	sexāgiēns
4.	quater	15.	quindeciëns	70.	septuāgiēns
5.	quinquiens (-es)1	16.	sēdeciēns	80.	octōgiēns
	sexiēns	17.	septiēsdeciēns	90.	nōnāgiēns
7.	septiēns	18.	duodēvīciēns	100.	centiēns
8.	octiens	19.	ūndēvīciēn s	200.	ducentiēns
9.	noviēns	20.	v īciēns	300.	trecenti ēns
10.	deci ēns	21.	semel vīciēns,2 etc.	1000.	mīliēns
11.	ūndeciēns	30.	trīciēns	10,000.	deciēns mīliēns

a. Numeral Adverbs are used with mille to express the higher numbers:

ter et trīciēns (centēna mīlia) sēstertium, 3,300,000 sesterces (three and thirty times a hundred thousand sesterces).

viciës ac septiës miliës (centëna milia) sëstertium, 2,700,000,000 sesterces (twenty-seven thousand times a hundred thousand).

Note. — These large numbers are used almost exclusively in reckoning money, and centēna mīlia is regularly omitted (see § 634).

Other Numerals

- 139. The following adjectives are called Multiplicatives:
 - simplex, single; duplex, double, twofold; triplex, triple, threefold; quadruplex, quinquiplex, septemplex, decemplex, centuplex, sesquiplex $(1\frac{1}{2})$, multiplex (manifold).
- a. Proportionals are: duplus, triplus, quadruplus, octuplus, etc., twice as great, thrice as great, etc.
- b. Temporals: bīmus, trīmus, of two or three years' age; biennis, triennis, lasting two or three years; bimēstris, trimēstris, of two or three months; bīduum, a period of two days; biennium, a period of two years.
 - c. Partitives: bīnārius, ternārius, of two or three parts.
- d. Other derivatives are: unio, unity; binio, the two (of dice); primanus, of the first legion; primarius, of the first rank; denarius, a sum of 10 asses; binus (distributive), double, etc.

¹ Forms in -ns are often written without the n.

² Also written viciens et semel or viciens semel, etc.

PRONOUNS

- 140. Pronouns are used as Nouns or as Adjectives. They are divided into the following seven classes:—
 - 1. Personal Pronouns: as, ego, I.
 - 2. Reflexive Pronouns: as, sē, himself.
 - 3. Possessive Pronouns: as, meus, my.
 - 4. Demonstrative Pronouns: as, hīc, this; ille, that.
 - 5. Relative Pronouns: as, qui, who.
 - 6. Interrogative Pronouns: as, quis, who?
 - 7. Indefinite Pronouns: as, aliquis, some one.
 - 141. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

NOTE. — These special forms are, in general, survivals of a very ancient form of declension differing from that of nouns.

Personal Pronouns

142. The Personal pronouns of the first person are ego, I, nos, we; of the second person, tū, thou or you, vos, ye or you. The personal pronouns of the third person—he, she, it, they—are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being sometimes used instead.

143. Ego and tū are declined as follows: —

FIRST PERSON

	$oldsymbol{Singular}$	Plural		
Nom.	ego, I	nōs, we		
GEN.	meī, of me	nostrum, nostrī, of us		
DAT.	mihi (mī), to me	nobīs, to us		
Acc.	mē, me	nōs, <i>us</i>		
ABL.	mē, by me	nobīs, by us		

SECOND PERSON

Nom	tū, thou or you	$\mathbf{vos}, ye \text{ or } you$
GEN.	tui, of thee or you	vestrum, vestrī; vostrum (-trī)
DAT.	tibi	võbīs
Acc.	tē	vōs
ABL.	tē	vōbīs

a. The plural nos is often used for the singular ego; the plural vos is never so used for the singular tū.

Note. — Old forms are genitive mis, tis; accusative and ablative med, ted (cf. § 43. N. 1).

b. The forms nostrum, vestrum, etc., are used partitively: — used partitively: — used partitively on the second of us. vestrum omnium, of all of you.

Note.—The forms of the genitive of the personal pronouns are really the genitives of the possessives: mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, genitive singular neuter: nostrum, vestrum, genitive plural masculine or neuter. So in early and later Latin we find una vestrarum, one of you (women).

c. The genitives mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, are chiefly used objectively (§ 347):—

memor sīs nostrī, be mindful of us (me). mē tuī pudet, I am ashamed of you.

d. Emphatic forms of tū are tūte and tūtemet (tūtimet). The other cases of the personal pronouns, excepting the genitive plural, are made emphatic by adding -met: as, egomet, vōsmet.

Note. — Early emphatic forms are mepte and tepte.

- e. Reduplicated forms are found in the accusative and ablative singular: as, mēmē, tētē.
- f. The preposition cum, with, is joined enclitically with the ablative: as, tēcum loquitur, he talks with you.

Reflexive Pronouns

- 144. Reflexive Pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand (see § 299): as, sē amat, he loves himself.
- a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, më video, I see myself; të laudas, you praise yourself; nobis persuadëmus, we persuade ourselves.
- b. The Reflexive pronoun of the third person has a special form used only in this sense, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined:—

GEN. sui, of himself, herself, itself, themselves

DAT. sibi, to himself, herself, itself, themselves

Acc. sē (sēsē), himself, herself, itself, themselves

ABL. sē (sēsē), [by] himself, herself, itself, themselves

NOTE 1.— Emphatic and reduplicated forms of se are made as in the personals (see § 143. d, e). The preposition cum is added enclitically: as, secum, with himself, etc.

NOTE 2.— An old form sed occurs in the accusative and ablative.

Possessive Pronouns

145. The Possessive pronouns are:—

FIRST PERSON.	meus, my	noster, our
SECOND PERSON.	tuus, thy, your	vester, your
THIRD PERSON.	suus, his, her, its	suus, their

These are really adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are so declined (see §§ 110-112). But meus has regularly mī (rarely meus) in the vocative singular masculine.

Note.—Suus is used only as a reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, patrem suum occidit, he killed his (own) father; but patrem eius occidit, he killed his (somebody else's) father.

- a. Emphatic forms in -pte are found in the ablative singular: suopte.
- **b.** A rare possessive cûius (quôius), -a, -um, whose, is formed from the genitive singular of the relative or interrogative pronoun (qui, quis). It may be either interrogative or relative in force according to its derivation, but is usually the former.
- c. The reciprocals one another and each other are expressed by inter se or alter . . . alterum : —

alter alterius ova frangit, they break each other's eggs (one . . . of the other). inter se amant, they love one another (they love among themselves).

Demonstrative Pronouns

146. The Demonstrative Pronouns are used to point out or designate a person or thing for special attention, either with nouns as Adjectives or alone as Pronouns. They are: — hic, this; is, ille, iste, that; with the Intensive ipse, self, and idem, same; 1 and are thus declined: —

	hīc, this							
	SINGULAR				PLURAL			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.		
Nom.	hīc	haec	hōc	hī	hae	haec		
GEN.	hûius	hûius	hûius	hōrum	hārum	hörum		
DAT.	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs		
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	hõs	hās	haec		
ABL.	hōc	hāc	hōc	his	hīs	hīs		

¹ These demonstratives are combinations of o- and i- stems. which are not clearly distinguishable.

NOTE 1.—Hic is a compound of the stem ho-with the demonstrative enclitic -ce. In most of the cases final e is dropped, in some the whole termination. But in these latter it is sometimes retained for emphasis: as, hūius-ce, hīs-ce. In early Latin-c alone is retained in some of these (hōrunc). The vowel in hīc, hōc, was originally short, and perhaps this quantity was always retained. Ille and iste are sometimes found with the same enclitic: illic, illaec, illuc; also illoc. See a, p. 67.

Note 2. — For the dative and ablative plural of hic the old form hibus is sometimes found; hace occurs (rarely) for hac.

is, that							
	SINGULAR			Plural			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.	
Nom.	is	ea	iđ	eī, iī (ī)	eae	ea	
GEN.	êius	êius	êius	eõrum	eārum	eōrum	
DAT.	eī	eī	eī	eīs, iīs (īs)	eīs, iīs (īs)	eīs, iīs (īs)	
Acc.	eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea	
ABL.	еō	eā	eō	eīs, iīs (īs)	eīs, iīs (īs)	eīs, iīs (īs)	

Note 3. — Obsolete forms are eae (dat. fem.), and eabus or ībus (dat. plur.). For dative eī are found also eī and eī (monosyllabic); eī, eos, etc., also occur in the plural.

ille, that								
	SINGULAR				PLURAL			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.		
Nom.	ille	illa	illud	illī	illae	illa		
GEN.	illīus	illīus	illīus	illörur	n illärum	illörum		
DAT.	illī	illī	i 111ī	illīs	illīs	illīs		
Acc.	illum	illam	illud	illōs	illäs	illa		
ABL.	illō	illā	illō	illīs	illīs	illīs		

Iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like ille.

Note 4. — Ille replaces an earlier ollus (olle), of which several forms occur.

NOTE 5. — Iste is sometimes found in early writers in the form ste etc. The first syllable of ille and ipse is very often used as short in early poetry.

NOTE 6. — The forms illī, istī (gen.), and illae, istae (dat.), are sometimes found; also the nominative plural istaece, illaece (for istae, illae). See a, p. 67.

			ipse, s	elf			
	SINGULAR				PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.	
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ip sī	ipsae	ipsa	
GEN.	ipsīus	ipsīus.	ipsīus	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum	
DAT.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	i p sīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsõs	ipsās	ipsa	
ABL.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsõ	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	

Note 7.—Ipse is compounded of is and -pse (a pronominal particle of uncertain origin: cf. § 145. a), meaning self. The former part was originally declined, as in reapse (for re eapse), in fact. An old form ipsus occurs, with superlative ipsissimus, own self, used for comic effect.

Note 8.—The intensive -pse is found in the forms capse (nominative), cumpse, capse, capse (ablative).

idem, the same

Singular				PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	īdem	eădem	ĭdem	idem (ei-)	eaedem	eădem
GEN.	êiusdem	êiusdem	êiusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eðrundem
DAT.	eidem	eīdem	eīdem	eī	sdem or īsd	em
Acc.	eundem	eandem	ĭdem	eösdem	eāsdem	eădem
ABL.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	eīs	sdem or isd	em

Norm 9.— Idem is the demonstrative is with the indeclinable suffix dem. The masculine idem is for †isdem; the neuter idem, however, is not for †iddem, but is a relic of an older formation. A final m of is is changed to n before d: as, cundem for cumdem, etc. The plural forms idem, isdem, are often written iidem, iisdem.

a. Ille and iste appear in combination with the demonstrative particle -c, shortened from -ce, in the following forms:—

SINGULAR

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom. Acc. Abl.	illic illunc illōc	illaec illanc illāc	illuc (illoc) illuc (illoc) illoc	istic istunc istōc	istaec istanc istāc	istuc (istoc) istuc (istoc) istōc
			Plural			
N., Acc	·. ——		illaec			istaec

Note 1.—The appended -ce is also found with pronouns in numerous combinations: as, huiusce, hunce, hōrunce, hārunce, hōsce, hisce (cf. § 146. N. 1), illīusce, īsce; also with the interrogative -ne, in hōcine, hōscine, istucine, illicine, etc.

Note 2.—By composition with ecce or em, behold! are formed eccum (for ecce eum), eccam, eccos, eccas; eccillum (for ecce illum); ellum (for em illum), ellam, ellos, ellas; eccistam. These forms are dramatic and colloquial.

b. The combinations hûiusmodī (hûiuscemodī), êiusmodī, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to tālis, such: as, rēs êiusmodī, such a thing (a thing of that sort: cf. § 345. a).

For uses of the Demonstrative Pronouns, see §§ 296 ff.

Relative Pronouns

147. The Relative Pronoun qui, who, which, is thus declined:—

Singular			PLURAL			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	quí	quae	quae
GEN.	cûius	cûius	cûius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
DAT.	cui	cui	cui	quibu s	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
ABL.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns

148. The Substantive Interrogative Pronoun quis, who? quid, what? is declined in the Singular as follows:—

	M., F.	N.	
Nom.	quis	quid	
GEN.	cûius	cûius	
DAT.	cui	cui	
Acc.	quem	quid	
ABL.	quõ	quō	

The Plural is the same as that of the Relative, qui, quae, quae.

- a. The singular quis is either masculine or of indeterminate gender, but in old writers it is sometimes distinctly feminine.
- b. The Adjective Interrogative Pronoun, qui, quae, quod, what kind of? what? which? is declined throughout like the Relative:—

SUBSTANTIVE
quis vocat, who calls?
quid vides, what do you see?

ADJECTIVE

qui homo vocat, what man calls?
quod templum vides, what temple do you see?

Note. — But qui is often used without any apparent adjective force; and quis is very common as an adjective, especially with words denoting a person: as, qui nominat me? who calls my name? quis dies fuit? what day was it? quis homo? what man? but often qui homo? what kind of man? nescio qui sis, I know not who you are.

- c. Quisnam, pray, who? is an emphatic interrogative. It has both substantive and adjective forms like quis, qui.
- 149. The Indefinite Pronouns quis, any one, and qui, any, are declined like the corresponding Interrogatives, but qua is commonly used for quae except in the nominative plural feminine:—

SUBSTANTIVE: quis, any one; quid, anything.
ADJECTIVE: qui, qua (quae), quod, any.

- a. The feminine forms qua and quae are sometimes used substantively.
- **b.** The indefinites quis and qui are rare except after si, nisi, ne, and num, and in compounds (see § 310. a, b).

Note. — After these particles qui is often used as a substantive and quis as an adjective (cf. § 148. b. n.).

Case-Forms of qui and quis

- 150. The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same stem, and most of the forms are the same (compare § 147 with § 148). The stem has two forms in the masculine and neuter, quo-, qui-, and one for the feminine, quā-. The interrogative sense is doubtless the original one.
 - a. Old forms for the genitive and dative singular are quôius, quoi.
- b. The form qui is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any way), and in the combination quicum, with whom, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.
- c. A nominative plural ques (stem qui-) is found in early Latin. A dative and ablative quis (stem quo-) is not infrequent, even in classic Latin.
- d. The preposition cum is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns ($\S 143.f$): as, quōcum, quīcum, quibuscum.

Note. — But occasionally cum precedes: as, cum quō (Iuv. iv. 9).

Compounds of quis and qui

- 151. The pronouns quis and qui appear in various combinations.
- a. The adverb -cumque (-cunque) (cf. quisque) added to the relative makes an indefinite relative, which is declined like the simple word: as, quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever; cûiuscumque, etc.
- Note. This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, qualiscumque, of whatever sort; quandocumque (also rarely quandoque), whenever; ubicumque, wherever.
- b. In quisquis, whoever, both parts are declined, but the only forms in common use are quisquis, quidquid (quicquid) and quoquo.
- Note 1.—Rare forms are quemquem and quibusquibus; an ablative quiqui is sometimes found in early Latin; the ablative feminine quaqua is both late and rare. Cuicui occurs as a genitive in the phrase cuicui modi, of whatever kind. Other cases are cited, but have no authority. In early Latin quisquis is occasionally feminine.
- NOTE 2. Quisquis is usually substantive, except in the ablative quoquo, which is more commonly an adjective.

c. The indefinite pronouns quidam, a certain (one); quivis, quilibet, any you please, are used both as substantives and as adjectives. The first part is declined like the relative qui, but the neuter has both quid-(substantive) and quod- (adjective):—

quidamquaedamquiddam (quoddam)quivisquaevisquidvis (quodvis)

Quidam changes m to n before d in the accusative singular (quendam, M.; quandam, F.) and the genitive plural (quorundam, M., N.; quarundam, F.).

- d. The indefinite pronouns quispiam, some, any, and quisquam, any at all, are used both as substantives and as adjectives. Quispiam has feminine quaepiam (adjective), neuter quidpiam (substantive) and quodpiam (adjective); the plural is very rare. Quisquam is both masculine and feminine; the neuter is quidquam (quicquam), substantive only; there is no plural. Ullus, -a, -um, is commonly used as the adjective corresponding to quisquam.
- e. The indefinite pronoun aliquis (substantive), some one, aliqui (adjective), some, is declined like quis and qui, but aliqua is used instead of aliquae except in the nominative plural feminine:—

SINGULAR

Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	M. aliquis (aliquī) alicūius alicui aliquem aliquo	F. aliqua alicûius alicui aliquam aliquā	N. aliquid (aliquod) alictiius alicui aliquid (aliquod) aliquid
		PLURAL	
Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL.	aliquī aliquōrum aliquibus aliquōs aliquibus	aliquae aliquārum aliquibus aliquās aliquibus	aliqua aliquōrum aliquibus aliqua aliquibus

Note. — Aliqui is sometimes used substantively and aliquis as an adjective.

f. The indefinite pronoun ecquis (substantive), whether any one, ecqui (adjective), whether any, is declined like aliquis, but has either ecquae or ecqua in the nominative singular feminine of the adjective form.

Note. — Ecquis (ecqui) has no genitive singular, and in the plural occurs in the nominative and accusative only.

g. The enclitic particle-que added to the interrogative gives a universal: as, quisque, every one; uterque, each of two, or both. Quisque is declined

like the interrogative quis, qui: — substantive, quisque, quidque; adjective, quique, quaeque, quodque.

In the compound unusquisque, every single one, both parts are declined (genitive uniuscuiusque), and they are sometimes written separately and even separated by other words:—

në in üno quidem quoque (Lael. 92), not even in a single one.

- h. The relative and interrogative have rarely a possessive adjective cûius (-a, -um), older quôius, whose; and a patrial cûiās (cûiāt-), of what country.
- i. Quantus, how great, qualis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the interrogative. They are either interrogative or relative, corresponding respectively to the demonstratives tantus, talis (§ 152). Indefinite compounds are quantuscumque and qualiscumque (see § 151. a).

Correlatives

152. Many Pronouns, Pronominal Adjectives, and Adverbs have corresponding demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite forms. Such parallel forms are called Correlatives. They are shown in the following table:—

DEMON.	Rel.	Interrog.	INDEF. REL.	Inder.
is	qui	quis ?	quisquis	aliquis
that	$oldsymbol{who}$	who I	whoever	some one
tantus	quantus	quantus ?	quantuscumque	aliquantus
so great	how (as) great	how great?	however great	some
tālis	quāli s	qu ālis ?	quāliscumque	
$oldsymbol{such}$	as	of what sort?	of whatever kind	
ibi	ubi	ubi?	ubiubi	alicubi
there	where	where ?	wherever	somewhere
eõ	quõ	quō?	quōquō	aliquō
thither	whither	whither?	whithersoever	(to) somewhere
eā	quā	quā ?	quāquā	aliquā
that way	which way	which way?	whithersoever	somewhere
inde	unde	unde?	undecumque	alicunde
thence	whence	whence ?	whencesoever	from somewhere
tum	cum	quandō ?	quandocumque	aliquandō
then	when	when ?	whenever	at some time
tot	quot	quot?	quotquot	aliquot
so many	as	how many?	however many	${m some},\ {m several}$
totiēns	quoti ēns	quoti ēns ?	quotionscumque	aliquoti ēns
so often	as	how often?	however often	at several times

VERBS

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

153. The inflection of the Verb is called its Conjugation.

Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number

- 154. Through its conjugation the Verb expresses Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, and Number.
 - a. The Voices are two: Active and Passive.
- **b.** The Moods are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.¹

Note. — The Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative are called *Finite Moods* in distinction from the Infinitive.

- c. The Tenses are six, viz.:—
- .1. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
- 2. For completed action, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.

The Indicative Mood has all six tenses, but the Subjunctive has no future or future perfect, and the Imperative has only the present and the future. The Infinitive has the present, perfect, and future.

- d. The Persons are three: First, Second, and Third.
- e. The Numbers are two: Singular and Plural.

Noun and Adjective Forms

- 155. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Latin Verb:
 - a. Four Participles,2 viz.: —

Active: the Present and Future Participles.

Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.8

- b. The Gerund: this is in form a neuter noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular.
- c. The Supine: this is in form a verbal noun of the fourth declension in the accusative (-um) and dative or ablative (-ū)⁴ singular.
- The Infinitive is strictly the locative case of an abstract noun, expressing the action of the verb (§ 451).
- ² The Participles are adjectives in inflection and meaning, but have the power of verbs in construction and in distinguishing time.
- The Gerundive is also used as an adjective of necessity, duty, etc. (§ 158. d). In late use it became a Future Passive Participle.

 4 Originally locative.

SIGNIFICATION OF THE FORMS OF THE VERB

Voices

- 156. The Active and Passive Voices in Latin generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but
 - a. The passive voice often has a reflexive meaning: —

ferro accingor, I gird myself with my sword.

Turnus routitus. Turnus turns (himself)

Turnus vertitur, Turnus turns (himself).

induitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes.

NOTE. — This use corresponds very nearly to the Greek Middle voice, and is doubtless a survival of the original meaning of the passive (p. 76, footnote 2).

- **b.** Many verbs are passive in form, but active or reflexive in meaning. These are called Deponents (§ 190): 1 as, hortor, I exhort; sequor, I follow.
- c. Some verbs with active meaning have the passive form in the perfect tenses; these are called Semi-Deponents: as, audeo, audere, ausus sum, dare.

Moods

- 157. The Moods are used as follows:—
- a. The Indicative Mood is used for most direct assertions and interrogations: as, valēsne? valeō, are you well? I am well.
- b. The Subjunctive Mood has many idiomatic uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is often translated by the English Indicative; frequently by means of the auxiliaries may, might, would, should; sometimes by the (rare) Subjunctive; sometimes by the Infinitive; and often by the Imperative, especially in prohibitions. A few characteristic examples of its use are the following:—

eāmus, let us go; nē abeat, let him not depart.
adsum ut videam, I am here to see (that I may see).
tū nē quaesieris, do not thou inquire.
beātus sīs, may you be blessed.
quid morer, why should I delay?
nesciō quid scrībam, I know not what to write.
sī moneam, audiat, if I should warn, he would hear.

1 That is, verbs which have laid aside $(d\bar{e}p\bar{o}nere)$ the passive meaning.

The Latin uses the subjunctive in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use a colorless auxiliary in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb with more definite meaning. Thus, I may write is often not scribam (subjunctive), but licet mihi scribere; I can write is possum scribere; I would write is scribam, scriberem, or scribere velim (vellem); I should write, (if, etc.), scriberem (sī) . . ., or (implying duty) oportet mē scribere.

c. The Imperative is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but the Subjunctive is often used instead (§§ 439, 450):—

līber estō, he shall be free. nē ossa legitō, do not gather the bones.

d. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or complement of another verb (§§ 452, 456. N.). In special constructions it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood in English (see Indirect Discourse, § 580 ff.).

NOTE. — For the Syntax of the Moods, see § 436 ff.

Participles

- 158. The Participles are used as follows:—
- a. The Present Participle (ending in -ns) has commonly the same meaning and use as the English participle in -ing; as, vocāns, calling; legentēs, reading. (For its inflection, see egēns, § 118.)
- b. The Future Participle (ending in -ūrus) is oftenest used to express what is likely or about to happen: as, rēctūrus, about to rule; audītūrus, about to hear.

Note. —With the tenses of esse, to be, it forms the First Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 195): as, urbs est cāsūra, the city is about to fall; mānsūrus eram, I was going to stay.

- c. The Perfect Participle (ending in -tus, -sus) has two uses: —
- 1. It is sometimes equivalent to the English perfect passive participle: as, tectus, sheltered; acceptus, accepted; ictus, having been struck; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, acceptus, acceptus, acceptus.
- 2. It is used with the verb to be (esse) to form certain tenses of the passive: as, vocātus est, he was (has been) called.

Note. — There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive Participle in Latin. For substitutes see §§ 492, 493.

- d. The Gerundive (ending in -ndus), has two uses:—
- 1. It is often used as an adjective implying obligation, necessity, or propriety (ought or must): as, audiendus est, he must be heard.

Note. — When thus used with the tenses of the verb to be (esse) it forms the Second Periphrastic Conjugation: deligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen (§ 196).

2. In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning as the Gerund (cf. § 159. a), though its construction is different. (For examples, see § 503 ff.)

Gerund and Supine

- 159. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows: —
- a. The Gerund is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -ing (§ 502): as, loquendī causā, for the sake of speaking.

Note. — The Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, scribere est ütile, writing (to write) is useful; but, ars scribendi, the art of writing.

b. The Supine is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 94. b), found only in the accusative ending in -tum, -sum, and the dative or ablative ending in -tū, -sū.

The Supine in -um is used after verbs and the Supine in -ū after adjectives (§§ 509, 510): —

vēnit spectātum, he came to see; mīrābile dictū, wonderful to tell.

Tenses of the Finite Verb

- 160. The Tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English:
 - a. Of continued action,
 - 1. Present: scribo, I write, I am writing, I do write.
 - 2. IMPERFECT: scribebam, I wrote, I was writing, I did write.
 - 3. Future: scribam, I shall write.
 - **b.** Of completed action,
 - 4. Perfect: scripsi, I have written, I wrote.
 - 5. PLUPERFECT: scripseram, I had written.
 - 6. FUTURE PERFECT: scripsero, I shall have written.
- 161. The Perfect Indicative has two separate uses, the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).
- 1. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English perfect with have: as, scrīpsī, I have written.
- 2. The Perfect Historical narrates a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress or continuing. It corresponds to the English past or preterite and the Greek agrist: as, scripsit, he wrote.
- 162. The Tenses of the Subjunctive are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses; but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax).

For the use of Tenses in the Imperative, see §§ 448, 449.

ACTIVE

Personal Endings

163. Verbs have regular terminations 1 for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive.2 These are:

SINGULAR

PASSIVE

1. '-m (-ō):	am-ō, I love.	-r (-or):	amo-r, I am loved.			
28:	amā-s, thou lovest.	-ris (-re):	amā-ris, thou art loved.			
3t:	ama-t, he loves.	-tur:	amā-tur, he is loved.			
	Plural					
1mus:	amā-mus, we love.	-mur:	amā-mur, we are loved.			
2tis:	amā-tis, you love.	-minī:	amā-minī, you are loved.			
3nt:	ama-nt, they love.	-ntur :	ama-ntur, they are loved.			

a. The Perfect Indicative active has the special terminations 3: -

Sing. 1. -ī:

2. -is-tī

3. -i-t:

Plur. 1. -i-mus:

2. -is-tis:

amāv-i, I loved.

amāv-is-tī, thou lovedst.

amāv-i-t, he loved.

amāv-i-mus, we loved.

amāv-is-tis, you loved.

amāv-is-tis, you loved.

amāv-ērunt (-ēre):

amāv-ērunt (-ēre), they loved.

b. The Imperative has the following terminations: -

PRESENT ACTIVE

Singular Plural

2. —: amā, love thou. -te: amā-te, love ye.

FUTURE ACTIVE

2. -tō: amā-tō, thou shalt love. -tōte: amā-tōte, ye shall love.
3. -tō: amā-tō, he shall love. -ntō: ama-ntō, they shall love.

¹ Most of these seem to be fragments of old pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the verb-stem (cf. § 36). But the ending -mini in the second person plural of the passive is perhaps a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek - $\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma$ s, and has supplanted the proper form, which does not appear in Latin. The personal ending -nt is probably connected with the participial nt- (nominative -ns).

² The Passive is an old Middle Voice, peculiar to the Italic and Celtic languages, and of uncertain origin.

*Of these terminations -ī is not a personal ending, but appears to represent an Indo-European tense-sign -ai of the Perfect Middle. In -is-tī and -is-tis, -tī and -tis are personal endings; for -is-, see § 169. c. n. In -i-t and -i-mus, -t and -mus are personal endings, and i is of uncertain origin. Both -ērunt and -ēre are also of doubtful origin, but the former contains the personal ending -nt.

Singular PRESENT PASSIVE Plural

2. -re: amā-re, be thou loved. -minī: amā-minī, be ye loved.

FUTURE PASSIVE

2. -tor: amā-tor, thou shalt be loved. ——

3. -tor: ama-tor, he shall be loved. -ntor: ama-ntor, they shall be loved.

FORMS OF THE VERB

The Three Stems

- 164. The forms of the verb may be referred to three stems, called (1) the Present, (2) the Perfect, and (3) the Supine stem.
 - 1. On the Present stem are formed —

The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative, Active and Passive.

The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive, Active and Passive.

The Imperative, Active and Passive.

The Present Infinitive, Active and Passive.

The Present Participle, the Gerundive, and the Gerund.

2. On the Perfect stem are formed —

The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Active.

The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Active.

The Perfect Infinitive Active.

- 3. On the Supine stem are formed 1 —
- a. The Perfect Passive Participle, which combines with the forms of the verb sum, be, to make —

The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Passive.

The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Passive.

The Perfect Infinitive Passive.

- **b.** The Future Active Participle, which combines with esse to make the Future Active Infinitive.
- c. The Supine in -um and -ū. The Supine in -um combines with irī to make the Future Passive Infinitive (§ 203. a).

Note. — The Perfect Participle with fore also makes a Future Passive Infinitive (as, amatus fore). For fore (futurum esse) ut with the subjunctive, see § 569. 3. a.

The Perfect Passive and Future Active Participles and the Supine, though strictly noun-forms, each with its own suffix, agree in having the first letter of the suffix (t) the same and in suffering the same phonetic change (t to s, see § 15. 5). Hence these forms, along with several sets of derivatives (in -tor, -tūra, etc., see § 238. b. n.1), were felt by the Romans as belonging to one system, and are conveniently associated with the Supine Stem. Thus, from pingō, we have pictum, pictus, pictūrus, pictor, pictūra; from rīdeō, rīsum (for †rīd-tum), rīsus (part.), rīsus (noun), rīsūrus, rīsiō, rīsor, rīsibilis.

VERB-ENDINGS

- 165. Every form of the finite verb is made up of two parts:
- 1. The STEM (see § 24). This is either the root or a modification or development of it.
 - 2. The Ending, consisting of
 - 1. the Signs of Mood and Tense (see §§ 168, 169).
 - 2. the Personal Ending (see § 163).

Thus in the verb vocā-bā-s, you were calling, the root is voc, modified into the verb-stem vocā-, which by the addition of the ending -bās becomes the imperfect tense vocābās; and this ending consists of the tense-sign bā- and the personal ending (-s) of the second person singular.

166. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are —

ACTIVE			PASSIVE		
INDICATIVE	SUB	JUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	S	UBJUNCTIVE
PR	ESENT		Pre	SENT	•
Sing. 1ō 2s 3t Plur. 1mus 2tis 3nt	Vowel-Change: 1,1 to &; 11, to eā; 111, to ā; 1V, to iā.	-m -s -t -mus -tis -nt	-or -ris (-re) -tur -mur -minī -ntur	Vowel-Change:	-r -ris (-re) -tur -mur -minī -ntur
Imperfect			Impe	RFEC	T
Sing. 1ba-m 2: -bā-s 3ba-t Plur. 1bā-mus 2bā-tis 3ba-nt		-re-m -rē-s -re-t -rē-mus -rē-tis -re-nt	-ba-r -bā-ris (-re) -bā-tur -bā-mur -bā-minī -ba-ntur		-re-r -rē-ris (-re) -rē-tur -rē-mur -rē-minī -re-ntur
IND	ICATIVE		INDIC	ATIV	E
Γι 1, 11 ¹	UTURE	111, I V	Fun	TURE	III, IV 1
Sing. 1b-ō 2bi-s 3bi-t Plur. 1bi-mus 2bi-tis 3bu-nt	Vowel-Change: as indicated in italics; verbs in -iö retaining: before these vowels.	-a-m -ē-s -e-t -ē-mus -ē-tis -e-nt	-bo-r -be-ris (-re) -bi-tur -bi-mur -bi-minī -bu-ntur	Vowel-Change: as in Active.	-a-r -ē-ris (-re) -ē-tur -ē-mur -ē-minī -e-ntur

¹ These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 171).

Acti	ve		Passive		
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICA	TIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	
PERF	ECT		Perf	ECT	
Sing. 1ī	-eri-m	4	sum	sim	
2is-tī	-eri-s	-tus(-ta, -tum) -ti (-tae, -ta)	es	8i s	
3i-t	-eri-t	-tum,	est	sit	
PLUR. 1i-mus	-eri-mus	-47 /_t-a	sumus	sīmus	
2is-tis	-eri-tis	-ta (-tae, -ta)	estis	sītis sint	
3ēru-nt (-ēre) -eri-nt	 /	sunt	sint	
Pluper	FECT		PLUPE	RFECT	
Sing. 1era-m	-isse-m	4	eram	essem	
2erā-s	-iss č- s	-tus(-ta, -tum)	crās	essēs	
3era-t	-isse-t		erat	esset	
Plur. 1erā-mus	-issē-mus	45 / 400	erāmus	essēmus	
2erā-tis	-issē-tis	-ti (-tae, -ta)	erātis	essētis	
3. -era-nt	-isse-nt	-66)	erant	essent	
FUTURE P	ERFECT	F	UTURE]	Perfect	
Sing. 1er-ō			erō		
2eri-s		-tus (-ta, -tum)	eris		
3eri-t		-tu m)	erit		
Plur. 1eri-mus			erimu s		
2eri-tis		-ti (-tae, -ta)	eritis		
3eri-nt		-ta)	eritis erunt		
	IMPER.	A TTVR			
Prese			Prese	NT	
Sing. 2. ——	Plur. 2te	Sing. 2re	PLU	r. 2minī	
Futu	R E		Furu	RE	
2tō	2tōte	2tor			
3tō	3ntō	3tor		3ntor	
For convenience	ce a table of th	e Noun and	Adject	ive forms of	

For convenience a table of the Noun and Adjective forms of the verb is here added.

INFINITIVE -re (Pres. stem) I, II, IV. -rī; III. -ī Pres. -isse (Perf. stem) -tus (-ta, -tum) esse PERF. -tūrus (-a, -um) esse FUT. -tum iri **PARTICIPLES** PERF. -tus, -ta, -tum -ns, -ntis Pres. Fur. -tūrus, -a, -um GER. -ndus, -nda, -ndum GERUND SUPINE -ndī, -ndō, -ndum, -ndō -tum, -tū

- 167. A long vowel is shortened before the personal endings -m (-r), -t, -nt (-ntur): as, ame-t (for older amē-t), habe-t (for habē-t), mone-nt, mone-ntur.
- 168. The tenses of the Present System are made from the Present Stem as follows:—1
- a. In the Present Indicative the personal endings are added directly to the present stem. Thus, present stem arā-: arā-s, arā-mus, arā-tis.
- b. In the Imperfect Indicative the suffix -bam, -bās, etc. (originally a complete verb) is added to the present stem: as, arā-bam, arā-bās, arā-bāmus.
- Note. The form †bam was apparently an aorist of the Indo-European root bhu (cf. fui, futurus, $\phi i\omega$, English be, been), and meant I was. This was added to a complete word, originally a case of a verbal noun, as in I was a-seeing; hence vide-bam. The form probably began in the Second or Third Conjugation and was extended to the others. The a was at first long, but was shortened in certain forms (§ 167).
- c. In the Future Indicative of the First and Second Conjugations a similar suffix, -bō, -bis, etc., is added to the present stem: as, arā-bō, arā-bis, monē-bō.
- Note. The form $\dagger b\bar{b}$ was probably a present tense of the root BHU, with a future meaning, and was affixed to a noun-form as described in b. N.
- d. In the Future Indicative of the Third and Fourth Conjugations the terminations -am, -ēs, etc. (as, teg-am, teg-ēs, audi-am, audi-ēs) are really subjunctive endings used in a future sense (see e). The vowel was originally long throughout. For shortening, see § 167.
- e. In the Present Subjunctive the personal endings were added to a form of the present stem ending in ē- or ā-, which was shortened in certain forms (§ 167). Thus, ame-m, amē-s, tegā-mus, tega-nt.
- Note 1.— The vowel ē (seen in the First Conjugation: as, am-ē-s) is an inherited subjunctive mood-sign. It appears to be the thematic vowel e (§ 174.1) lengthened. The ā of the other conjugations (mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s, audi-ā-s) is of uncertain origin.
- Note 2.—In a few irregular verbs a Present Subjunctive in -im, -īs, etc. occurs: as, sīm, sīs, sīmus, velim, velīs, etc. This is an old optative, ī being a form of the Indo-European optative mood-sign yē- (cf. siem, siēs, siet, § 170. b. n.). The vowel has been shortened in the first and third persons singular and the third person plural.
- f. In the Imperfect Subjunctive the suffix -rem, -res, etc. is added to the present stem: as, amā-rem, amā-res, monē-rem, tege-rem, audī-rem.
- NOTE. The stem element -rē- is of uncertain origin and is not found outside of Italic. The r is doubtless the agrist sign s (cf. es-se-m, es-sē-s) changed to r between two vowels (\S 15. 4). The \check{e} is probably the subjunctive mood-sign (see e).
- ¹ The conjugation of a verb consists of separate formations from a root, gradually grouped together, systematized, and supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of the forms were inherited from the parent speech; others were developed in the course of the history of the Italic dialects or of the Latin language itself.

- 169. The tenses of the Perfect System in the active voice are made from the Perfect Stem as follows:—
- a. In the Perfect Indicative the endings -ī, -istī, etc. are added directly to the perfect stem: as, amāv-istī, tēx-istis.
- **b.** In the Pluperfect Indicative the suffix -eram, -erās, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-eram, monu-erās, tēx-erat.

Note. — This seems to represent an older \dagger -is-ām etc. formed on the analogy of the Future Perfect in -erō (older \dagger -is-ō: see c below) and influenced by eram (imperfect of sum) in comparison with erō (future of sum).

c. In the Future Perfect the suffix -erō, -eris, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-erō, monu-eris, tēx-erit.

NOTE. — This formation was originally a subjunctive of the s-aorist, ending probably in †-is-ō. The -is- is doubtless the same as that seen in the second person singular of the perfect indicative (vīd-is-tī), in the perfect infinitive (vīd-is-se), and in the pluperfect subjunctive (vīd-is-sem), s being the aorist sign and i probably an old stem vowel.

d. In the Perfect Subjunctive the suffix -erim, -eris, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-erim, monu-eris, tēx-erit.

Note.—This formation was originally an optative of the s-aorist (-er- for older -is-, as in the future perfect, see c above). The i after r is the optative mood-sign i shortened (see § 168. e. n. 2). Forms in -is, -it, -imus, -itis, are sometimes found. The shortening in -is, -imus, -itis, is due to confusion with the future perfect.

e. In the Pluperfect Subjunctive the suffix -issem, -isses, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amav-issem, monu-isses, tex-isset.

Note. — Apparently this tense was formed on the analogy of the pluperfect indicative in \dagger -is-ām (later -er-am, see b), and influenced by essem (earlier \dagger essēm) in its relation to eram (earlier \dagger esām).

The Verb Sum

170. The verb sum, be, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, on account of its importance for the inflection of other verbs.

The signs of mood and tense are often said to be inserted between the root (or verb-stem) and the personal ending. No such insertion is possible in a language developed like the Latin. All true verb-forms are the result, as shown above, of composition; that is, of adding to the root or the stem either personal endings or fully developed auxiliaries (themselves containing the personal terminations), or of imitation of such processes. Thus vidēbāmus is made by adding to vidē-, originally a significant word or a form conceived as such, a full verbal form †bāmus, not by inserting -bā- between vidē- and -mus (§ 168. b).

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Present Indicative sum, Present Infinitive esse, Perfect Indicative fui, Future Participle futurus.

	PRESENT STEM es-	Perfect Stem fu-	Supine Stem fut
	INDICATIVE	Present	SUBJUNCTIVE
Sing.	1. sum, <i>I am</i>		sim ¹
	2. ĕs, thou art (you are	?)	8 is
	3. est, he (she, it) is		sit
PLUR.	1. sumus, we are		s īmus
	2. es tis , you are		8 ītis
	3. sunt, they are		sint
		Imperfect	
Sing.	1. eram, I was		es sem
	2. er ās , you were		e ssēs
	3. erat, he (she, it) wa	8 ·	esset
PLUR.	1. erāmus, we were		es sēmus
	2. erātis, you were		e ssētis
	3. erant, they were		essent
		Future	
Sing.	1. erð, I shall be		
	2. eris, you will be		
	3. erit, he will be		
PLUR.	1. erimus, we shall be		
	2. eritis, you will be		
	3. erunt, they will be		
		Perfect	•
Sing.	1. fuī, I was (have been	n)	fuerim
	2. fuisti, you were		fueris
	3. fuit, he was		fuerit
PLUR.	1. fuimus, we were		fu erimus
	2. fuistis, you were		fu eritis
	3. fuërunt, fuëre, they	y were	fuerint
		PLUPERFECT	
Sing.	1. fueram, I had been		fu issem
	2. fuerās, you had been	\boldsymbol{n}	fu issēs
	3. fuerat, he had been		fuisset

 $^{^{1}}$ All translations of the Subjunctive are misleading, and hence none is given; see § 157. b.

PLUR.	1.	fuerāmus, we had been	fu issēmus
	2.	fuerātis, you had been	fu issētis
	3.	fuerant, they had been	fuissent

FUTURE PERFECT

Sing. 1. fuero, I shall have been Plur. 1.

PLUR. 1. fuerimus, we shall have been

2. fueris, you will have been

2. fueritis, you will have been

3. fuerit, he will have been

3. fuerint, they will have been

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT SING. 2. ës, be thou Plur. 2. este, be ye

FUTURE 2. esto, thou shalt be 2. estote, ye shall be

3. esto, he shall be 3. sunto, they shall be

INFINITIVE

PRESENT esse, to be

Perfect fuisse, to have been

FUTURE futurus esse or fore, to be about to be

PARTICIPLE

FUTURE futurus, -a, -um, about to be

- a. For essem, esses, etc., forem, fores, foret, forent, are often used; so fore for futurus esse.
- **b.** The Present Participle, which would regularly be †sons,¹ appears in the adjective in-sons, innocent, and in a modified form in ab-sens, prae-sens. The simple form ens is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a participle or abstract noun, in the forms ens, being; entia, things which are.

Note. — Old forms are: — Indicative: Future, escit, escunt (strictly an inchoative present, see § 263. 1).

Subjunctive: Present, siem, sies, siet, sient; fuam, fuas, fuat, fuant; Perfect, füvimus; Pluperfect, füvisset.

The root of the verb sum is Es, which in the imperfect is changed to ER (see § 15.4), and in many forms is shortened to s. Some of its modifications, as found in several languages more or less closely related to Latin, may be seen in the following table,—the Sanskrit syām corresponding to the Latin sim (siem):—

SANSKRIT		GREEK	LATIN		Lithuanian
as-mi	syām (optative)	ξμμι ²	s-um	sim ($siem$)	es-mi
as-i	syās	ŧσσl ²	es	sīs (siēs)	es-i
as-ti	syāt -	έστί	es-t	sit (siet)	es-ti
s-mas	syāma	έσμέν	s-umus	sīmus	es-me
s-tha	syāt a	έστέ	es-tis	sītis	es-te
s-anti	ร _ั งนร	$\dot{\epsilon} \nu \tau l^2$	s-unt	sint (sient)	es-ti

The Perfect and Supine stems, fu-, fut-, are kindred with the Greek $\xi \phi v$, and with the English be.

¹ Compare Sankrit sant, Greek $\ddot{\omega}_{\nu}$. ² Old form.

The Four Conjugations

171. Verbs are classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before -re in the Present Infinitive Active:—

Conjugation	Infinitive Ending	Stem
First	-āre (amāre)	ā
Second	-ëre (monëre)	8
Third	-ĕre (regĕre)	ĕ
Fourth	-Ire (audire)	1

The Principal Parts

- 172. The Principal Parts of a verb, showing the three stems which determine its conjugation throughout, are
 - The Present Indicative (as, amō)
 The Present Infinitive (as, amā-re)

 showing the Present Stem.
 - 3. The Perfect Indicative (as, amāv-ī), showing the Perfect Stem.
- 4. The neuter of the Perfect Participle (as, amāt-um), or, if that form is not in use, the Future Active Participle (amāt-urus), showing the Supine Stem.
- 173. The regular forms of the Four Conjugations are seen in the following:—

First Conjugation: —

Active, amō, amāre, amāvī, amātum, love.

Passive, amor, amārī, amātus.

Present Stem amā-, Perfect Stem amāv-, Supine Stem amāt-.

Second Conjugation: —

Active, dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum, blot cut.

Passive, dēleor, dēlērī, dēlētus.

Present Stein dele-, Perfect Stem delev-, Supine Stein delet-.

In the Second conjugation, however, the characteristic \(\bar{e}\)- rarely appears in the perfect and perfect participle. The common type is, therefore:—

Active, moneō, monere, monuī, monitum, warn.

Passive, moneor, moneri, monitus.

Present Stem monë-, Perfect Stem monu-, Supine Stem monit-.

Third Conjugation: —

Active, tego, tegere, texi, tectum, cover.

Passive, tegor, tegī, tēctus.

Present Stem tege-, Perfect Stem tex-, Supine Stem tect-.

Fourth Conjugation: —

Active, audio, audire, audivi, auditum, hear.

Passive, audior, audiri, auditus.

Present Stem audi-, Perfect Stem audiv-, Supine Stem audit-.

- a. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations (cf. § 189):—
 - 1, 2, domō, domāre, domuī, domitum, subdue.
 - 2, 3, maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum, remain.
 - 3, 4, petō, petĕre, petīvī, petītum, seek.
 - 4, 3, vinciō, vincīre, vīnxī, vinctum, bind.

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the Present stem conforms.

Present Stem

- 174. The parent (Indo-European) speech from which Latin comes had two main classes of verbs:—
- 1. Thematic Verbs, in which a so-called thematic vowel (%, in Latin ½) appeared between the root and the personal ending: as, leg-i-tis (for †leg-e-tes), leg-u-nt (for †leg-o-nti).1
- 2. Athematic Verbs, in which the personal endings were added directly to the root: as, es-t, es-tis (root Es)², dä-mus (dō, root DA), fer-t (ferō, root FER).
- Of the Athematic Verbs few survive in Latin, and these are counted as irregular, except such as have been forced into one of the four "regular" conjugations. Even the irregular verbs have admitted many forms of the thematic type.
- Of the Thematic Verbs a large number remain. These may be divided into two classes:—
- 1. Verbs which preserve the thematic vowel e or o (in Latin i or u) before the personal endings. These make up the Third Conjugation. The present stem is formed in various ways (§ 176), but always ends in a short vowel % (Latin ½). Examples are tegō (stem teg%), sternimus (stem stern%) for †ster-no-mos, plectunt (stem plect%) for †plec-to-nti. So noscō (stem gnosc%) for gno-sc-ō. Verbs like noscō became the type for a large number of verbs in -scō, called inceptives (§ 263. 1).
- 2. Verbs which form the present stem by means of the suffix y%,-, which already contained the thematic vowel %.—Verbs of this class in which any vowel (except u) came in contact with the suffix y%,- suffered contraction so as to present a long vowel ā-, ē-, i-, at the end of the stem. In this contraction the thematic % disappeared. These became the types of the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations respectively. In imitation of these long vowel-stems numerous verbs were formed by the Romans themselves (after the mode of formation had been entirely forgotten) from noun- and

¹ Cf. λέγ-ε-τε, λέγ-ο-μεν; Doric λέγ-ο-ντι.

² Cf. ἐσ-τί, ἐσ-τέ (see p. 83, note).

adjective-stems. This came to be the regular way of forming new verbs, just as in English the borrowed suffix -ize can be added to nouns and adjectives to make verbs: as, macadamize, modernize.

Thematic verbs of the second class in which a consonant or u came into contact with the suffix y%-o-suffered various phonetic changes. Such verbs fall partly into the Third Conjugation, giving rise to an irregular form of it, and partly into the Fourth, and some have forms of both. Examples are: — (con)spicio (-spicere) for †spekyo; venio (venīre) for †(g)vem-yo; cupio, cupere, but cupīvī; orior, orītur, but orīrī. Note, however, pluo (pluere) for †plu-yo; and hence, by analogy, acuo (acuere) for †acu-yo.

In all these cases many cross-analogies and errors as well as phonetic changes have been at work to produce irregularities. Hence has arisen the traditional system which is practically represented in §§ 175, 176.

175. The Present Stem may be found by dropping -re in the Present Infinitive:—

amā-re, stem amā-; monē-re, stem monē-; tegē-re, stem tegē-; audī-re, stem audī-.

- 176. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in all regular verbs in one of the following ways:—
- a. In the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, by adding a long vowel (ā-, ē-, ī-) to the root, whose vowel is sometimes changed: as, vocā-re (voc), monē-re (MEN, cf. meminī), sopī-re (SOP).

Note. — Verb-stems of these conjugations are almost all really formed from nounstems on the pattern of older formations (see § 174).

- **b.** In the Third Conjugation, by adding a short vowel %2 to the root. In Latin this % usually appears as 1/u, but e is preserved in some forms. Thus, tegi-s (root TEG), ali-tis (AL), regu-nt (REG); but tegë-ris (tegë-re), alë-ris.
- 1. The stem-vowel e/o (i/u) may be preceded by n, t, or sc: 8 as, tem-ni-tis, tem-nu-nt, tem-ne-ris (TEM); plec-ti-s (PLEC); cre-sci-tis (CRE).
- 2. Verbs in -iō of the Third Conjugation (as, capiō, capĕre) show in some forms an i before the final vowel of the stem: as, cap-i-unt (CAP), fug-i-unt (FUG).
 - c. The root may be changed —
 - 1. By the repetition of a part of it (reduplication): as, gi-gn-e-re (GEN).
 - 2. By the insertion of a nasal (m or n): as, find-e-re (FID), tang-e-re (TAG).
- 1 Most verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations form the present stem by adding the suffix -y^o/_o- to a noun-stem. The ā of the First Conjugation is the stem-ending of the noun (as, plantā-re, from plantā-, stem of planta). The ē of the Second and the i of the Fourth Conjugation are due to contraction of the short vowel of the noun-stem with the ending -y^o/_o-. Thus albēre is from albo/_o-, stem of albus; finire is from fini-, stem of finis. Some verbs of these classes, however, come from roots ending in a vowel.
 - ² This is the so-called "thematic vowel."
- ⁸ In these verbs the stem-ending added to the root is respectively $-n^{\circ}/_{\circ}$, $-t^{\circ}/_{\circ}$, $sc^{\circ}/_{\circ}$.

- d. In some verbs the present stem is formed from a noun-stem in u-: as, statu-e-re (statu-s), aestu-ā-re (aestu-s); cf. acuō, acuere.¹
- Note 1.—A few isolated forms use the simple root as a present stem: as, fer-re, fer-t; es-se; vel-le, vul-t. These are counted as irregular.
- Note 2.—In some verbs the final consonant of the root is doubled before the stem-vowel: as, pell-i-tis (PEL), mitt-i-tis (MIT).
- e. Some verbs have roots ending in a vowel. In these the present stem is generally identical with the root: as, da-mus (DA), flē-mus (stem flē-, root form unknown).² But others, as rui-mus (RU), are formed with an additional vowel according to the analogy of the verbs described in d.

Note. — Some verbs of this class reduplicate the root: as, si-st-e-re (sta, cf. stare).

Perfect Stem

177. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:—

a. The suffix v (u) is added to the verb-stem: as, $voc\bar{a}-v-\bar{i}$, audi- $v-\bar{i}$; or to the root: as, son-u-i (sonā-re, root son), mon-u-i (monē-re, mon treated as a root).

Note. — In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened: as, strā-v-ī (sternō, star), sprē-v-ī (spernō, spar).

b. The suffix s is added to the root: as, carp-s-i (CARP), tex-i (for teg-s-i, TEG).⁴

Note. — The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the perfect: as, finx-ī (fig, present stem fingĕ-), sānx-ī (sac, present stem sancī-).

c. The root is reduplicated by prefixing the first consonant — generally with ĕ, sometimes with the root-vowel: as, ce-cid-ī (cadō, CAD), to-tond-ī (tondeō, TOND).

Note. — In fid-i (for † fe-fid-i, find-ō), scid-i (for † sci-scid-i, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.

- d. The root vowel is lengthened, sometimes with vowel change: as, lēg-ī (lĕg-ō), ēm-ī (ĕm-ō), vīd-ī (vĭd-e-ō), fūg-ī (fŭg-i-ō), ēg-ī (ặg-ō).
- e. Sometimes the perfect stem has the same formation that appears in the present tense: as, vert-ī (vert-ō), solv-ī (solv-ō).
- f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, peti-v-i (as if from †peti-o, †peti-re, PET).
- ¹ These are either old formations in $-y^{\circ}/_{\circ}$ in which the y has disappeared after the u (as, statuō for †statu-yō) or later imitations of such forms.
- ² In some of the verbs of this class the present stem was originally identical with the root; in others the ending -y^o/_o- was added, but has been absorbed by contraction.
 - * The v-perfect is a form of uncertain origin peculiar to the Latin.
- 4 The s-perfect is in origin an aorist. Thus, dīx-ī (for †dīcs-ī) corresponds to the Greek aorist ἔ-δειξ-α (for †ἔ-δεικσ-α).

Supine Stem

- 178. The Supine Stem may be found by dropping -um from the Supine. It is formed by adding t (or, by a phonetic change, s)
 - a. To the present stem: as, amā-t-um, dēlē-t-um, audī-t-um.
- b. To the root, with or without I: as, cap-t-um (capiō, CAP), moni-t-um (moneō, mon used as root), cās-um (for †cad-t-um, CAD), lēc-t-um (LEG).
- Note 1.—By phonetic change dt and tt become s (defensum, versum for †de-fend-t-um, †vert-t-um); bt becomes pt (scrip-t-um for †scrib-t-um); gt becomes ct (rec-t-um for †reg-t-um).
- Note 2.— The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the supine: as, tīnc-t-um (tingō, Tig), tēn-s-um for †tend-t-um (ten-d-ō, Ten).
- Note 3. The supine is sometimes from a lost or imaginary verb-stem: as, peti-t-um (as if from †peti-ō, †peti-re, PET).
- Note 4.—A few verbs form the supine stem in s after the analogy of verbs in d and t: as, fal-s-um (fallo), pul-s-um (pello).

Forms of Conjugation

- 179. The forms of the several conjugations from which, by adding the verb-endings in § 166, all the moods and tenses can be made are as follows:—
- a. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add \bar{a} to the root to form the present stem: 2 as, ama-re; with a few whose root ends in a (†for, fa-ri; flo, fla-re; no, na-re; sto, sta-re).
- 1. The stem-vowel \bar{a} is lost before $-\bar{o}$: as, $\bar{a}m\bar{o} = \dagger \bar{a}m\bar{a}$ - $(y)\bar{o}$; and in the present subjunctive it is changed to \bar{e} : as, $\bar{a}m\bar{e}$ -s, $\bar{a}m\bar{e}$ -mus.
- 2. The perfect stem regularly adds v, the supine stem t, to the present stem: as, amā-v-ī, amā-t-um. For exceptions, see § 209. a.
- **b.** The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add \bar{e} to the root to form the present stem: as, mone-re; with a few whose root ends in \bar{e} ; as, fle- \bar{o} , fle- \bar{o} , ne- \bar{o} , ne- \bar{e} ; re-or, re-ri (cf. § 176. e).
- 1. In the present subjunctive \bar{a} is added to the verb-stem: as, mone- \bar{a} -s, mone- \bar{a} -mus (cf. § 168. e).
- 2. A few verbs form the perfect stem by adding v (u), and the supine stem by adding t, to the present stem: as, dēlē-v-ī, dēlē-t-um. But most form the perfect stem by adding v (u) to the root, and the supine stem by adding t to a weaker form of the present stem, ending in I: as, mon-u-ī, monĭ-t-um. For lists, see § 210.

¹ For these modifications of the supine stem, see § 15. 5, 6, 10.

² The present stem is thus the verb-stem. For exceptions, see § 209. a.

- c. The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 197) which add ĕ- to the root to form the present stem: as, tegĕ-re, capĕ-re; with a few whose root ends in e: as, se-rĕ-re for †se-se-re (reduplicated from se, cf. sătum).
- 1. The stem-vowel $\check{\mathbf{e}}$ is regularly lost before -\(\bar{\omega}\), and becomes \mathbf{u}^1 before -\(\omega\) and $\check{\mathbf{I}}$ before the other endings of the indicative and imperative: as, teg-\(\bar{\omega}\), tegi-t, tegu-nt; in the imperfect indicative it becomes \(\bar{\omega}\): as, teg\(\bar{\omega}\)-bam, teg\(\b

Verbs in -iō lose the i before a consonant and also before ĭ, ī, and ĕ (except in the future, the participle, the gerund, and the gerundive). Thus, — capi-at, capi-unt, capi-ēbat, capi-ēs, capi-et, capi-ent; but, cap-it (not †capi-it), cap-eret.

- 2. All varieties of perfect and supine stems are found in this conjugation. See lists, § 211. The perfect is not formed from the present stem, but from the root.
- d. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add i- to the root to form the present stem: as, audi-re. In these the perfect and supine stems regularly add v, t, to the verb-stem: as, audi-v-i, audi-t-um. Endings like those of the third conjugation are added in the third person plural of the present (indicative and imperative), in the imperfect and future indicative, and in the present subjunctive: as, audi-unt, audi-ēbat, audi-ētis, audi-at, the i being regularly short before a vowel.
- e. The Present Imperative Active (second person singular) is the same as the present stem: as, amā, monē, tegĕ, audī. But verbs in -iō of the third conjugation omit i: as, capĕ (not †capie).
- f. The tenses of completed action in the Active voice are all regularly formed by adding the tense-endings (given in § 166) to the perfect stem: as, amāv-ī, amāv-eram, amāv-erō, amāv-erim, amāv-issem, amāv-isse.
- g. The tenses of completed action in the Passive voice are formed by adding to the perfect participle the corresponding tenses of continued action of the verb esse: as, perfect amātus sum; pluperfect amātus eram, etc.

¹ The gerundive varies between -endus and -undus.

² A few are formed from noun-stems, as fini-re (from fini-s), and a few roots perhaps end in i; but these are not distinguishable in form.

^{*} For exceptions, see § 212. b.

Synopsis of the Verb

180. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verb arranged according to the three stems (§ 164). Amo, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

> PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, amō, amāre, amāvī, amātum. Passive, amor, amārī, amātus sum.

PRESENT STEM amā-

PERFECT STEM amav-

SUPINE STEM amāt-

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

Present stem, amā-

INDICATIVE

Pres. amō IMPERF. amā-bam Fur. amā-bō

amo-r amā-bar amā-bor

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES. ame-m IMPERF. amā-rem

ame-r am**ā-rer**

IMPERATIVE

Pres. amā Fur. amā-tō

amā-re amä-tor

INFINITIVE

Pres. amā-re

amā-rī

PARTICIPLE

Pres. amā-ns GERUNDIVE ama-ndus

GERUND ama-ndi

Perfect stem, amāv-

Supine stem, amāt-

INDICATIVE

PERF. PLUPERF. FUT. PERF. am**āv-ī** amāv-eram

amāv-erō

amāt-us sum am**āt-us eram** amāt-us erō

SUBJUNCTIVE

Perf. PLUPERF.

amāv-erim am**āv-issem**

amāt-us sim am**āt-us essem**

INFINITIVE

PERF.

amāv-isse

Supine stem, amāt-

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

PERF.

am**āt-us esse** amāt-um īrī

FUT.

am**āt-ūrus esse**

Fur.

amāt-ūrus

Perf. amāt-us

SUPINE amāt-um amāt-ū

Peculiarities of Conjugation

- 181. In tenses formed upon the Perfect Stem, v between two vowels is often lost and contraction takes place.
- a. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, -ōvī, often contract the two vowels into ā, ē, ō, respectively: as, amāsse for amāvisse; amārim for amāverim; amāssem for amāvissem; cōnsuērat for cōnsuēverat; flēstis for flēvistis; nōsse for nōvisse. So in perfects in -vī, where the v is a part of the present stem: as, commōrat for commōverat.

Note. — The first person of the perfect indicative (as, amāvī) is never contracted, the third very rarely.

b. Perfects in -ivi regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels except before st and ss, and very rarely in the third person perfect:—

audieram for audiveram; audisse for audivisse; audisti for audivisti; abiit for abivit; abiërunt for abiverunt.

Note 1.— The forms sīris, sīrit, sīrītis, sīrint, for sīveris etc. (from sīverō or sīverim), are archaic.

Note 2.— In many forms from the perfect stem is, iss, sis, are lost in like manner, when s would be repeated if they were retained: as, dixti for dixisti (x = cs); traxe for traxisse; $\bar{e}v\bar{a}st\bar{i}$ for $\bar{e}v\bar{a}sist\bar{i}$; $v\bar{i}xet$ for $v\bar{i}xisset$; $\bar{e}r\bar{e}ps\bar{e}mus$ for $\bar{e}r\bar{e}psiss\bar{e}mus$; $d\bar{e}c\bar{e}sse$ for $\bar{d}ecessisse$. These forms belong to archaic and colloquial usage.

182. Four verbs, — dīcō, dūcō, faciō, ferō, — with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination of the Imperative, making dīc, dūc, făc, fēr; but compounds in -ficiō retain it, as, cōnfice.

Note. — The imperative forms dice, duce, face (never fere), occur in early Latin.

- a. For the imperative of sciō, the future form scītō is always used in the singular, and scītōte usually in the plural.
 - 183. The following ancient forms are found chiefly in poetry:
- 1. In the fourth conjugation, -ībām, -ībō, for -iēbām, -iam (future). These forms are regular in eō, go (§ 203).
- 2. In the present subjunctive, -im: as in duim, perduim, retained in religious formulas and often in comedy. This form is regular in sum and volo and their compounds (§§ 170, 199).
- 3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect indicative, -sim, -sō: as, faxim, faxō, iussō, recēpsō (= fēcerim etc.); ausim (= ausus sim).
 - 4. In the passive infinitive, -ier: as, vocărier for vocări; agier for agī.
- 5. A form in -āssō, -āssere is found used as a future perfect: as, amāssis, from amō; levāssō, from levō; impetrāssere, from impetrō; iūdicāssit, from iūdicō (cf. § 263. 2. b. n.).

FIRST CONJUGATION (\bar{a} -STEMS) — ACTIVE VOICE

184. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add \bar{a} - to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in a-. The verb $am\bar{o}$, love, is conjugated as follows:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Present Indicative amo, Present Infinitive amare,
Perfect Indicative amavi, Supine amatum.

PRESENT STEM ama-

amant, they love

PERFECT STEM amay-

SUPINE STEM amat-

INDICATIVE

SUBJUNCTIVE

ament

PRESENT

amō,¹ I love, am loving, do love

amēs

amāt, he (she, it) loves

amētus

amātus, we love

amētus

amētus

IMPERFECT

amābam, I loved, was loving, did love
amārem
amābās, you loved
amāres
amābat, he loved
amārēmus
amābātis, you loved
amārētis
amābant, they loved
amārent

FUTURE

amābō, I shall love amābis, you will love amābit, he will love

amābimus, we shall love amābitis, you will love amābunt, they will love

¹ The stem-vowel a- is lost before -5, and in the Present Subjunctive becomes E-.

² The translation of the Subjunctive varies widely according to the construction. Hence no translation of this mood is given in the paradigms.

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE
	-	

amāvī, I loved, have loved amāverim amāvistī, you loved amāverit amāvimus, we loved amāverits amāvistis, you loved amāveritis

amāvērunt (-ēre), they loved

PLUPERFECT

amāverint

amāveram, I had loved amāvissem amāverās, you had loved amāvissēs amāverat, he had loved amāvissēt amāverāmus, we had loved amāvissēmus amāverātis, you had loved amāvissētis amāverant, they had loved amāvissent

FUTURE PERFECT

Singular Plural

amāverō, I shall have loved amāverimus, we shall have loved amāveris, you will have loved amāverit, he will have loved amāverint, they will have loved

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT amā, love thou amāte, love ye smātō, thou shalt love amātō, ye shall love amātō, they shall love

INFINITIVE

PRESENT amare, to love
PERFECT amavisse or amasse, to have loved
Future amaturus esse, to be about to love

PARTICIPLES

Present amāns, -antis, loving
Future amātūrus, -a, -um, about to love

GERUND

Genitive amandi, of loving

Accusative amandum, loving

Dative amando, for loving

Ablative amando, by loving

SUPINE

amātum, to love amātū, to love

FIRST CONJUGATION (ā-STEMS) — PASSIVE VOICE

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Present Indicative amor, Present Infinitive amārī,
Perfect Indicative amātus sum.¹

PRESENT STEM ama-

SUPINE STEM amat-

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

SUBJUNCTIVE

amor,² I am loved, being loved amāris (-re), you are loved amātur, he is loved

amāmur, we are loved amāminī, you are loved amantur, they are loved amer ³ amēris (-re) amētur

amēmur amēminī amentur

IMPERFECT

amābar, I was loved, being loved amābāris (-re), you were loved amābātur, he was loved

amābāmur, we were loved amābāminī, you were loved amābantur, they were loved amārer amārēris (-re) amārētur

amärēmur amärēminī amārentur

FUTURE

amābor, I shall be loved amāberis (-re), you will be loved amābitur, he will be loved

amābimur, we shall be loved amābiminī, you will be loved amābuntur, they will be loved

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used instead of sum, es, etc.; so also fueram instead of eram and fuero instead of ero. Similarly in the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive fuerim, fueris, etc. are sometimes used instead of sim, sis, etc., and fuissem instead of essem.

² The stem-vowel ā- is lost before -or, and in the Present Subjunctive becomes 5-.

⁸ The translation of the Subjunctive varies widely according to the construction Hence no translation of this mood is given in the paradigms.

INDICATIVE

SUBJUNCTIVE

PERFECT

amātus sum, I was loved amātus sim 1 amātus es, you were loved amātus sīs amātus est, he was loved amātus sit amātī sumus, we were loved amātī sīmus amātī estis, you were loved amātī sītis amātī sunt, they were loved amātī sīnt

PLUPERFECT

amātus eram, I had been loved amātus essem amātus erās, you had been loved amātus essēs amātus erat, he had been loved amātī erāmus, we had been loved amātī essēmus amātī erātis, you had been loved amātī essētis amātī erant, they had been loved amātī essent

FUTURE PERFECT

Singular

Plural

amātus erō, I shall have been loved amātus eris, you will have, etc. amātus erit, he will have, etc.

amātī erimus, we shall have, etc. amātī eritis, you will have, etc. amātī erunt, they will have, etc.

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT amare, be thou loved amamini, be ye loved amator, thou shalt be loved amantor, they shall be loved

INFINITIVE

PRESENT amari, to be loved

Perfect amātus esse, to have been loved Future amātum īrī, to be about to be loved

PARTICIPLES

Perfect amātus, -a, -um, loved (beloved, or having been loved)
Future (Gerundive) amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely)

¹ See page 94, footnote 1.

SECOND CONJUGATION (\bar{e} -STEMS)

185. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add &to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in &-.

Principal Parts: Active, moneo, monere, monui, monitum; Passive, moneor, moneri, monitus sum.

PRESENT STEM MONE- PERFECT STEM MONU- SUPINE STEM MONIT-

ACTIVE VOICE

PASSIVE VOICE

PRESENT

IMPERFECT

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
			•

PRESENT

moneō, I warn monēs, you warn monet, he warns	mon eam ¹ mon eās mon eat	mon eor mon ēris (-re) mon ētur	monear ¹ moneāris (-re) moneātur
mon ēmus	mon eāmus	monēmur	mon eāmur
mon ētis	mon eātis	mon ēminī	mon eāminī
monent	moneant	monentur	moneantur

IMPERFECT

mon ēbam	mon ērem	monēbar	monērer
mon ēbās	mon ērēs	monēbāris (-re)	monērēris (-re)
mon ēbat	mon ēret	monēbātur	monērētur
mon ēbāmus	mon ērēmus	mon ēbāmur	monērēmur
mon ēbātis	mon ērētis	mon ēbāminī	monērēminī
mon ēbant	mon ērent	mon ēbantur	monērentur

FUTURE FUTURE

mon ēbō	mon ēbor
mon ēbis	mon ēberis (-re)
mon ēbit	monēbitur
monēbimus	mon ēbimur
mon ēbitis	mon ēbiminī
111011002000	

¹ See § 179. b. 1.

	Activ	e Voice	P	assive	v Voice	;
INDICA	TIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICAT	IVE	SUBJ	UNCTIVE
	PEI	RFECT		Peri		
monuī		monuerim	monitus s	um ¹	monit	us sim ¹
monu istī		monu eris	monitus e		` .	us sīs
monuit		monuerit	monitus e	st	monit	us sit
monuimu	S	monu erimus	monit ī su	mus	monit	I sīmus
monu ist i	3	monueritis	monit ī es t	dis	monit	ī sītis
monu ēru	nt (-re)	monuerint	monit ī su i	nt	monit	ī sint
	PLUP	ERFECT]	PLUPE	RFECT	
monuerai	m.	monuissem	monit us e	ram ¹	monit	us essem 1
monuerās	3	monu issēs	monit us e	rās	monit	us essēs
monuerat	:	monu isset	monitus e	rat	monit	as esset
monuerāi	nus	monu issēmus	monitī erā	imus	monit	ī essēmus
monuerāt	is	monu issētis	monit i e ra			I essētis
monuerai	nt	monuissent	monitī era	ınt	monit	I essent
	Future	Perfect	$\mathbf{F}\mathbf{u}$	TURE	Perfe	СT
monuerõ			monitus e	rō ¹		
monueris	1		monit us e			
monuerit			monitus e	rit		•
monuerin	nus		monit I eri	mus		
monuerit	is		monit ī eri			
monuerin	t		monit ī e r	unt		
		IMPERA	TIVE			
	Singula	r Plural		Sing	ular	Plural
Present	mon	mon ēte	PRESENT	mon	Ēre	mon ēminī
FUTURE	mon ēt č	mon ētōte	FUTURE	mon	ētor	
	mon ēt č	5 monentō		mon	etor	monentor
		INFINI	TIVE			
PRESENT	mon ēre		mon ērī			
Perfect	monuis		monitus e	=		
FUTURE	monitū	rus esse	monitum ?	īrī		
		PARTIC	PLES			

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT MON**ēns, -entis** PERFECT MONITUS, -a, -um
FUTURE MONITŪRUS, -a, -um
GERUNDIVE MON**endus, -a,-um**

GERUND

SUPINE

monendī, -dō, -dum, -dō monitum, monitū

¹ See footnote 1 on page 94.

THIRD CONJUGATION (¿-STEMS)

186. The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 197) which add \(\xi\)- to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in \(\xi\)-.

Principal Parts: Active; tegō, tegĕre, tēxī, tēctum; Passive, tegor, tegī, tēctus sum.

|--|

Perfect stem tex- 1

SUPINE STEM tect-

ACTIVE VOICE

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

tegő, I cover	tegam ²
tegis, you cover	tegās
tegit, he covers	tegat
teg imus	teg āmus
tegitis	teg ātis
tegunt	tegant

PRESENT

tegor ²	tegar ²
tegeris (-re)	teg āris (-re)
tegitur	tegātur
tegimur	tegāmur
tegiminī	tegāminī
teguntur	tegantur

IMPERFECT

tegēbam	tegerem
tegēbās	tegerēs
tegēbat	tegeret
teg ēbāmus	tegerēmus
tegēbātis	tegerētis
tegēbant	tegerent

IMPERFECT

teg ēbar	tegerer
tegēbāris (-re)	tegerēris (-re)
teg ēbātur	tegerētur
tegēbāmur	tegerēmur
teg ēbāminī	tegerēminī
tegēbantur	tegerentur

FUTURE

FUTURE

tegar ²
tegēris (-re
teg ēt ur
teg ēmur
teg ēminī
tegentur

¹ The perfect stem in this conjugation is always formed from the root; tex- is for teg-s- (see § 15. 9).

² See § 179. c. 1.

Active	Voice	Passiv	e Voice
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE ·
PERI	FECT	Per	FECT
tē xī	tēxerim	tēctus sum ¹	tēctus sim ¹
tēx istī	tē xeris	tēctus es	tēct us sīs
tēxit	tēx erit	tēct us est	tēctus sit
tē ximus	tēx erimus	tēctī sumus	tēctī sīmus
tēx istis	tēx eritis	tēct ī estis	tēct ī sītis
tēx ērunt (-re)	tēxerint	tēctī sunt	tēct ī sint
PLUPE	RFECT	PLUPE	RFECT
tē xeram	tēx issem	tēctus eram ¹	tēctus essem ¹
tēx erās	tēx issēs	tēctus erās	tēctus essēs
tēx erat	tēxisset	tēctus erat	tēct us esset
tēx erāmus	tēx issēmus	tēct ī erāmus	tēct ī essēmus
tēx erātis	tēx issētis	tēct ī erātis	tēct ī essētis
texerant	tēxissent	tēct ī erant	tēct ī essent
Future	Perfect	Future	Perfect
tēx erō		tēct us e rō ¹	
tēx eris		t ēctu s eris	
tēx erit		tēctu s erit	
tēx erimus		tēct ī erimus	
tēx eritis		tēct ī eritis	
tē xerint		tēct ī erunt	
		IMPERATIVE	
Sing	ular Plural	Singular	Plural
Present teg	e tegite	teg ere	tegiminī
FUTURE teg			
teg	itō teguntō	tegitor	teguntor
		INFINITIVE	
Present teg	ere	tegī	
	isse	tēct us esse	
Future tēct	tūrus esse	tēct um īrī	
		PARTICIPLES	
•	ēns, -entis	PERFECT	tēctus, -a, -um
Future tēc	tūrus, -a, -um	GERUNDIVE	tegendus (-undus)
GERUN	ND	SUPINE	
teg endī, -dō, - d	đum, -đō	tēct um, t ēct ū	•

¹ See footnote 1 on page 94.

FOURTH CONJUGATION (Z-STEMS)

187. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add it to the root to form the present stem.

Principal Parts: Active, audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītum; Passive, audior, audīrī, audītus sum.

Present ster	t audi- Pers	FECT STEM audiv- Sup	INE STEM audit-
ACTIVE	VOICE	PASSIVE	VOICE
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres	ENT	Pres	ENT
audiō, I hear audīs, you hear audit, he hears	audiam ¹ audiās audiat	aud ior aud īris (-re) aud ītu r	audiar ¹ audiāris (-re) audiātur
audīmus audītis audiunt	aud iāmus aud iātis aud iant	aud īmu r aud īminī aud iuntur	audiāmur audiāminī audiantur

IMPERFECT

audiēbam ¹	audīrem	audiēbar ¹	audīrer
audiēbās	audīrēs	audiēbāris (-re)	audīrēris (-re)
audiēbat	audīret	audiēbātur	audīrētur
audiēbāmus	audīrēmus	aud iēbāmur	aud īrēmu r
audiēbātis	audīrētis	aud iēbāminī	aud īrēmin ī
audiēbant	audīrent	aud iēbantur	aud īrentu r

IMPERFECT

FUTURE

FUTURE

audiam ¹ audiēs audiet	audiar ¹ audiēris (-re) audiētur
audi ēmus	audiēmur
audiētis	aud iēminī
audient	aud ientur
_	

¹ See § 179. d.

_						
Ac	tive Voic	e		Pass	ive Voice	
INDICATIV	E SU	BJUNCTIVE		INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	
]	Perfect			PE	RFECT	
audīv ī	au	dīv erim		audītus sum 1	audītus sim ¹	
audīv istī	au	dīv eris		audītus es	audīt us sīs	
audīvit	au	dīv erit		audīt us est	audītus sit	
audīvimus	au	dīv erimus		audītī sumus	audīt ī sīmus	
audīv istis	au	dīv eritis		audīt ī estis	audīt ī sītis	
audīvērun	t(-re) au	dī verint		audīt ī sunt	audī tī sint	
Pr	LUPERFEC	T		PLU	PERFECT	
audīveram	au	dīv issem		audītus eram	audītus essem 1	
audīv erās	au	dīv issēs		audītus erās	audītus essēs	
audīv erat	au	dīv isset		audītu s erat	audītus esset	
audīv erām	ius au	dīv issēmus		audīt ī erāmu s	audīt ī essēmus	
audīv erāti	s au	dīv issētis		audīt ī erātis	audīt ī essētis	
audīv eran	t au	dīvissent		audīt ī erant	audīt ī essent	
Furu	URE PERI	FECT		FUTUR	E PERFECT	
audīv erō				audītus er ō 1		
audīv eris		•		audītus eris		
audīv erit				audītus erit		
audīv erim	us			audīt ī erimus		
audīv eriti s	3			audīt ī eritis		
audīv erint	;			audīt ī erunt		
]	MPERAT	CIVE		
	Singular	Plural		Singular	Plural	
Present	aud ī	aud īte		aud īre	aud imini	
FUTURE	aud ītō	aud ītōte		aud ītor		
	aud ītō	aud iuntō		aud ītor	audiuntor	
			INFINIT	IVE		
PRESENT	aud īre			aud īrī		
Perfect	audīv iss	e	•	audīt us esse		
FUTURE	audīt ūr u	ls esse		audīt um īrī		

PARTICIPLES

Present audiëns, -ientis Perfect auditus, -a, -um
Future auditūrus, -a, -um Gerundive audiendus, -a, -um

GERUND SUPINE audiendī, -dō, -dum, -dō audītum, audītū

¹ See footnote 1, p. 94.

VERBS IN -iō OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

188. Verbs of the Third Conjugation in -iō have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They lose the i of the stem before a consonant and also before i, i, and ĕ (except in the future, the participle, the gerund, and the gerundive).¹ Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows:—

Principal Parts: Active, capiō, capĕre, cēpī, captum; Passive, capior, capī, captus sum.

	, ·	- L 100, 100 L 100 L	
PRESENT STEM capie- (cape-)		Perfect stem cep-	Supine stem capt-
ACTIVE	VOICE	PASSIVI	e voice
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres	ENT	Pre	SENT
capiō, I take capis, you take capit, he takes capimus capitis capiunt	cap iās cap iat	capior capiar caperis (-re) capiāris (-re) capitur capiātur capimur capiāmur capiminī capiāminī capiuntur capiantur	
Imper	FECT	Імрен	RFECT
capiēbam	caperem	capiēbar	caperer
FUTURE capiam capiēs capiet, etc.		Fur capiar capiēris (-re) capiētur, etc.	URE
Peri	FECT	Peri	FECT
$c\bar{e}p$	cēp erim	captus sum	captus sim

Pluperfect Pluperfect

cēperam cepissem captus eram captus essem

FUTURE PERFECT FUTURE PERFECT captus erō

¹ This is a practical working rule. The actual explanation of the forms of such verbs is not fully understood.

Active Voice

Passive Voice

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

PRESENT

Singular Plural

Singular

Plural

cape capite

capere

capiminī

FUTURE

FUTURE

capitō capitōte capitō capito

capitor capitor

capiuntor

INFINITIVE

PRESENT capere

capī

Perfect cepisse

captus esse

FUTURE capturus esse

captum īrī

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT

capiens, -ientis

Perfect

captus, -a, -um

FUTURE capturus, -a, -um

GERUNDIVE

capiendus, -a, -um

GERUND

SUPINE

capiendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

captum, -tū

Parallel Forms

189. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use:—

lavo, lavare or lavere, wash (see § 211. e). scateo, scatere or scatere, gush forth. lūdifico, -āre, or lūdificor, -ārī, mock. fulgo, fulgere, or fulgeo, fulgere, shine.

DEPONENT VERBS

190. Deponent Verbs have the forms of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS First conjugation: mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus, admire.

Second conjugation: vereor, verērī, veritus, fear.

Third conjugation: sequor, sequī, secūtus, follow.

Fourth conjugation: partior, partīrī, partītus, share.

INDICATIVE

Pres.	miror	ve reor	sequor	partior
	mirāris (-re)	ver ēris (-re)	sequ eris (-re)	partīris (-re)
	mirātur	ver ētur	sequ itur	partītur
	mir āmur	ver ēmur	sequ imur	part īmur
	mir āmini	ver ēminī	sequ iminī	part īminī
	mir antur	ver entur	sequ untur	partiuntur
	mīr ābar	verēbar	sequ ēbar	pa rtiēbar
	mīr ābor	verēbor	sequ ar	p artiar
	mīrātus sum	veritus sum	secūtus sum	partī tus sum
	mīrātus eram	veritus eram	secūtus eram	partīt us eram
	mīrātus erō	veritus erō	secūtus erō	partīt us erō

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	mirer	verear	sequ ar	partiar
IMPF.	mīr ārer	ve rērer	sequerer	partirer
PERF.	mīrātus sim	verit us sim	secūtus sim	partītu s sim
PLUP.	mīrāt us essem	verit us essem	secüt us essem	partitus essem

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	mir āre	ver ēre	se qu ere	part īre
Fur.	mīr āto r	ver ētor	sequ itor	partitor

INFINITIVE

PRES.	mirari	vereri	sequi	parun
Perf.	mīrāt us esse	verit us esse	secūt us esse	partītu s esse
Fut.	mīrāt ūrus esse	verit ūrus esse	secūt ūrus esse	partit ūrus , esse

PARTICIPLES

Pres.	mīr āns	ver ëns	sequ ēns	parti ëns
Fur.	mīrāt ūrus	verit ūrus	secūt ūrus	partit ūrus
Perf.	mīrātus	veritus	secūt us	partitus
GER.	mirandus	ver endus	sequendus	partiendus

GERUND

mirandi, -5, etc. verendi, etc. sequendi, etc. pa	p artiendī, etc .	
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SUPINE

mīr ātum, -tū	ver itum, -tū	secūtum, -tū	partītum, -tū
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a. Deponents have the participles of both voices: -

sequens, following.
secutus, having followed.

secūtūrus. about to follow. sequendus, to be followed.

- **b.** The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, mercātus, bought; adeptus, gained (or having gained).
- c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, sequor has secuturus (-a, -um) esse (not secutum iri).
- d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or intransitive verbs used impersonally:—

hōc confitendum est, this must be acknowledged.
moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

- e. Most deponents are intransitive or reflexive in meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the Middle Voice (§ 156. a. N.).
- f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, criminor, I accuse, or I am accused.
- g. About twenty verbs have an active meaning in both active and passive forms: as, mereo or mereor, I deserve.
- 191. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular. The following deponents are irregular:—

adsentior, -iri, adsensus, assent. apīscor, (-ip-), -ī, aptus (-eptus), get. dēfetīscor, -ī, -fessus, faint. expergiscor, -i, -perrectus, rouse. experior, -īrī, expertus, try. fateor, -ērī, fassus, confess. fruor, -ī, früctus (fruitus), enjoy. fungor, -ī, functus, fulfil. gradior (-gredior), -i, gressus, step. īrāscor, -ī, īrātus, be angry. lābor, -ī, lāpsus, fall. loquor, -ī, locūtus, speak. mētior, -īrī, mēnsus, measure. -miniscor, -I, -mentus, think. morior, -ī (-īrī), mortuus (moritūrus), die. nanciscor, -ī, nactus (nānctus), find. nāscor, -ī, nātus, be born. nītor, -ī, nīsus (nīxus), strive.

obliviscor, -I, oblitus, forget. opperior, -iri, oppertus, await. ordior, -iri, orsus, begin. orior, -Irī, ortus (oritūrus), rise (3d conjugation in most forms). paciscor, -I, pactus, bargain. patior (-petior), -ī, passus (-pessus), suffer. -plector, -ī, -plexus, clasp. proficiscor, -i, profectus, set out. queror, -ī, questus, complain. reor, reri, ratus, think. revertor, -I, reversus, return. ringor, -1, rictus, snart. sequor, -ī, secūtus, follow. tueor, -ērī, tuitus (tūtus), defend. ulcīscor, -ī, ultus, avenge. ūtor, -ī, ūsus, use, employ.

NOTE.—The deponent comperior, -iri, compertus, is rarely found for comperio, -ire. Revertor, until the time of Augustus, had regularly the active forms in the perfect system, reverti, reverteram, etc.

a. The following deponents have no supine stem: —

dēvertor, -tī, turn aside (to lodge).

diffiteor, -ērī, deny.

fatiscor, -i, gape.

liquor, -i, melt (intrans.).

medeor, -ērī, heal. reminiscor, -ī, call to mind.

vescor, -i, feed upon.

Note. — Deponents are really passive (or middle) verbs whose active voice has disappeared. There is hardly one that does not show signs of having been used in the active at some period of the language.

Semi-Deponents

192. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called Semi-deponents. They are:—

audeo, audere, ausus, dare.

gaudeo, gaudere, gavisus, rejoice.

soleo, solere, solitus, be wont. fido, fidere, fisus, trust.

a. From audeo there is an old perfect subjunctive ausim. The form sodes (for sī audēs), an thou wilt, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.

b. The active forms vāpulō, vāpulāre, be flogged, and vēneō, vēnīre, be sold (contracted from vēnum īre, go to sale), have a passive meaning, and are sometimes called neutral passives. To these may be added fieri, to be made (§ 204), and exsulare, to be banished (live in exile); cf. accedere, to be added.

Note. — The following verbs are sometimes found as semi-deponents: iūrō, iūrāre, iūrātus, swear; nūbō, nūbere, nūpta, marry; placeō, placēre, placitus, please.

THE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

193. A Periphrastic form, as the name indicates, is a "roundabout way of speaking." In the widest sense, all verb-phrases consisting of participles and sum are Periphrastic Forms. The Present Participle is, however, rarely so used, and the Perfect Participle with sum is included in the regular conjugation (amatus sum, eram, etc.). Hence the term Periphrastic Conjugation is usually restricted to verb-phrases consisting of the Future Active Participle or the Gerundive with sum.

Note. — The Future Passive Infinitive, as amatum īrī, formed from the infinitive passive of eo, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um, may also be classed as a periphrastic form (§ 203. a).

- 194. There are two Periphrastic Conjugations, known respectively as the First (or Active) and the Second (or Passive).
- a. The First Periphrastic Conjugation combines the Future Active Participle with the forms of sum, and denotes a future or intended action.
- b. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation combines the Gerundive with the forms of sum, and denotes obligation, necessity, or propriety.
- c. The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly throughout the Indicative and Subjunctive and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

195. The First Periphrastic Conjugation: —

INDICATIVE

amātūrus sum, I am about to love PRESENT IMPERFECT amātūrus eram, I was about to love amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love FUTURE amātūrus fuī, I have been, was, about to love Perfect PLUPERFECT aniātūrus fueram, I had been about to love FUTURE PERFECT

amātūrus fuero, I shall have been about to love

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT amātūrus sim IMPERFECT amātūrus essem PERFECT amātūrus fuerim amātūrus fuissem PLUPERFECT

INFINITIVE

PRESENT amātūrus esse, to be about to love

amātūrus fuisse, to have been about to love PERFECT

So in the other conjugations:—

Second: monitūrus sum, I am about to advise. Third: tēctūrus sum, I am about to cover. Fourth: auditūrus sum, I am about to hear. Third (in -io): captūrus sum, I am about to take.

196. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation:—

INDICATIVE

amandus sum, I am to be, must be, loved PRESENT amandus eram, I was to be, had to be, loved IMPERFECT amandus ero, I shall have to be loved FUTURE amandus fui, I was to be, had to be, loved PERFECT amandus fueram, I had had to be loved PLUPERFECT amandus fuero, I shall have had to be loved FUTURE PERFECT

SUBJUNCTIVE

amandus sim PRESENT amandus essem IMPERFECT amandus fuerim PERFECT amandus fuissem PLUPERFECT

INFINITIVE

amandus esse, to have to be loved PRESENT amandus fuisse, to have had to be loved Perfect

So in the other conjugations:—

Second: monendus sum, I am to be, must be, advised. Third: tegendus sum, I am to be, must be, covered. Fourth: audiendus sum, I am to be, must be, heard.

Third (in -io): capiendus sum, I am to be, must be, taken.

IRREGULAR VERBS

197. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root, or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs. They are sum, volo, fero, edo, do, eo, queo, fio, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 170.

- 198. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, dē, in, inter, ob, prae, pro (earlier form prod), sub, super.
 - a. In the compound prosum (help), pro retains its original d before e:

PRINCIPAL PARTS: prosum, prodesse, profui, profuturus

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
	Singular Plural		. Singular	Plural
Present	prõsum prõdes prõdest	prõsumus prõdestis prõsunt	prōsim p rōsīs prōsit	prōsīmus prōsītis prōsint
IMPERFECT FUTURE PERFECT PLUPERFECT FUT. PERF.	pröderam pröderö pröfui pröfueram pröfuerö	proderāmus proderimus profuimus profuerāmus profuerimus	prödessem —— pröfuerim pröfuissem ——	prodessēmus profuerimus profuissēmus

IMPERATIVE

Present prodes, prodeste Future

Future prodesto, prodestote

INFINITIVE

Present prodesse Perfect profuisse Future profuturus esse

PARTICIPLE FUTURE profuturus

¹ These are athematic verbs, see § 174. 2.

b. Sum is also compounded with the adjective potis, or pote, able, making the verb possum (be able, can). Possum is inflected as follows:—1

Principal Parts: possum, posse, potuī²

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Present	possum potes potest	possumus potestis possunt	possim possis possit	possīmus possītis possint
IMPERFECT FUTURE PERFECT PLUPERFECT FUT. PERF.	poteram poterō potuī potueram potuerō	poterāmus poterimus potuimus potuerāmus potuerimus	possem potuerim potuissem	possēmus potuerimus potuissēmus
	Pres. posse	INFINITIVE	Perf. potu	isse

PARTICIPLE

Pres. potens (adjective), powerful

199.

volo, nolo, malo

Pressure	volo, velle, volui, —, be willing, will, wish
PARTS:	volo, velle, volui, ——, be willing, will, wish nolo, nolle, nolui, ——, be unwilling, will not
FARTS:	mālō, mālle, māluī, ——, be more willing, prefer

NOTE. — Nolo and malo are compounds of volo. Nolo is for ne-volo, and malo for ma-volo from mage-volo.

INDICATIVE nõlõ volō mālō PRESENT vīs 8 māvīs non vis vult (volt) non vult māvult nõlumus volumus mālumus vultis (voltis) māvultis non vultis volunt nölunt mālunt mālēbam volēbam nōlēbam IMPERFECT volam, volēs, etc. nolam, noles, etc. mālam, mālēs, etc. FUTURE voluī noluī māluī PERFECT nõlueram mālueram PLUPERFECT volueram FUT. PERF. voluerō nōluerō māluerō

¹ The forms petis sum, pote sum, etc. occur in early writers. Other early forms are potesse; possiem, -5s, -et; poterint, potisit (for possit); potestur and possitur (used with a passive infinitive, ef. § 205. a).

² Potuï is from an obsolete †potere.

⁸ Vis is from a different root.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present	velim, -īs, -it,	nōlim	$m\bar{a}lim$
	velīmus, -ītis, -int		
IMPERFECT	vellem,¹-ës, -et,	nolle m	\mathbf{m} alle \mathbf{m}
	· vellēmus, -ētis, -ent		
PERFECT	voluerim	nõluerim	māluerim
Pluperfect	voluissem	nōluissem	māluissem
	IMPERA	TIVE	
PRESENT		nōlī, n ō lī te	
Future		nōlītō, etc.	
	INFINIT	rive	
Present	velle ¹	nōlle	mālle
Perfect	voluisse	nōluisse	māluisse
	PARTICI	PLES	
Present	volēns, -entis	nōlēns, -entis	

Note. — The forms sis for si vis, sultis for si vultis, and the forms nevis (ne-vis), nevelt, mavolo, mavolunt, mavelim, mavellem, etc., occur in early writers.

200.

Fero, bear, carry, endure 2

Principal Parts: fero, ferre, tuli, latum

PRESENT STEM fer-		PERFECT STEM tul-	Supine stem lät-	
	ACT	TIVE	PASSIVE	
		INDICATIVE		
Present	ferō	ferimus	feror	ferimur
	fers	fertis	ferris (-re)	feriminī
	fert	ferunt	fertur	feruntur
Imperfect	ferēbam		ferēbar	
FUTURE	feram		ferar	
Perfect	tulī		lātus sum	
PLUPERFECT	tuleram		lātus eram	
FUTURE PERFECT	tulerō		lātus erō	

¹ Vellem is for †vel-sēm, and velle for †vel-se (cf. es-se), the s being assimilated to the 1 preceding.

² Ferō has two independent stems: fer- in the present system, and tul- (for tol-) in the perfect from TOL, root of tollō. The perfect tetulī occurs in Plautus. In the participle the root is weakened to tl-, lātum standing for †tlātum (cf. $\tau \lambda \eta \tau \delta s$).

⁸ Ferre, ferrem, are for †fer-se, †fer-sēm (cf. es-se, es-sem), s being assimilated to preceding r; or ferre, ferrem, may be for †ferese, †feresēm (see § 15.4).

Active

Passive

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT	feram	ferar
IMPERFECT	ferrem ¹	ferrer
Perfect	tulerim	lātus sim
PLUPERFECT	tulissem	lātus essem

IMPERATIVE

Present	fer	ferte	ferre	feriminī
FUTURE	fertō	fertōte	fertor	
	fertō	ferunt ō	fertor	feruntor

INFINITIVE

PRESENT	ferre	ferrī
Perfect	tulisse	lātus esse
FUTURE	lātūrus esse	lātum īrī

PARTICIPLES

Present	ferēns, -entis	Perfect	lātus
FUTURE	lātūrus	GERUNDIVE	ferendus

GERUND SUPINE

ferendī, -dō, -dum, -dō lātum, lātū

a. The compounds of fero, conjugated like the simple verb, are the following:—

ad-	adferō	adferre	attuli	allātum
au-, ab-	auferō	a uferre	abstuli	ablātum
con-	confero	conferre	contuli	collatum
dis-, dī-	${f differo}$	differre	distuli	dīlātum
ex-, ĕ-	efferð	efferre	extuli	ēlātum
in-	Inferō	inferre	intulI	illätum
ob-	offerō	offerre	obtuli	oblātum
re-	referō	referre	rettuli	relātum
sub-	sufferō	sufferre	sustuli ²	sublātum²

Note. — In these compounds the phonetic changes in the preposition are especially to be noted. ab- and au- are two distinct prepositions with the same meaning.

¹ See note 3, page 110.

² Sustuli and sublatum also supply the perfect and participle of the verb tollo.

201. Edő, edere, ēdi, ēsum, eat, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also an archaic present subjunctive and some alternative forms directly from the root (ED), without the thematic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

Present edō, edis (ēs¹), edit (ēst)

edimus, editis (ēstis), edunt

IMPERFECT edēbam, edēbās, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present edam (edim), edas (edis), edat (edit)

edāmus (edīmus), edātis (edītis), edant (edint)

Imperfect ederem, ederes (ēssēs), ederet (ēsset)

ederēmus (ēssēmus), ederētis (ēssētis), ederent (ēssent)

IMPERATIVE

	$oldsymbol{Singular}$. Plural
PRESENT	ede (ēs)	edite (ēste)
FUTURE	editō (ēstō)	editōte (ēstōte)
	editō (ēstō)	eduntō

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT	edere (ësse)	PRESENT	edēns, -entis
Perfect	ēdisse	FUTURE	ēsūrus ²
FUTURE	ēsūrus esse		

GERUND

edendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

SUPINE

ēsum, ēsū 2

a. In the Passive the following irregular forms occur in the third person singular: Present Indicative ēstur, Imperfect Subjunctive ēssētur.

¹ In ēs etc. the e is long. In the corresponding forms of sum, e is short. The difference in quantity between ēdō and ēs etc. depends upon inherited vowel variation (§17.a).

² Old forms are ēssūras and supine ēssum.

202. The irregular verb do, give, is conjugated as follows:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS: do, dare, dedi, datum

PRESENT STEM	đặ-	Perfe	ct Strm ded		Supine Stem dat-
ACT	IVE		•	\mathbf{P}^{A}	ASSIVE
		IND	ICATIVE		
Present	dō	damus			damur
	$\mathbf{d\bar{a}s}$	datis		daris (-r	e) damin ī
	\mathbf{dat}	dant		datur	dantur
Imperfect	dabam			dabar	
FUTURE	${f dabar o}$			dabor	
Perfect	$\mathbf{ded}\mathbf{\bar{i}}$			datus su	ım.
Pluperfect	dederar	n		datus era	am
FUTURE PERFECT	dederō			datus er	ō
		8UBJ	UNCTIVE		
Present	dem, dē	s, det, etc).	, dē	ris (-re), dētur, etc.
IMPERFECT	darem			darer	, ,, ,
PERFECT	dederin	1		datus sir	m
Pluperfect	dedisser	n		datus ess	sem
		IMPI	ERATIVE		
PRESENT	dā	date		dare	daminī
FUTURE	datō	datōte		dator	- ·
	datō	dantō		dator	dantor
	•	INF	INITIVE		
PRESENT	dare			darī	
Perfect	dedisse			datus ess	38
FUTURE	datūrus	esse		datum īr	rī .
PARTICIPLES					
PRESENT	dāns, da	antis	Perfect	datus	
FUTURE	datūrus		GERUNDIVE	dandu	S

GERUND

dandī, -dō, -dum, -dō

SUPINE

datum, datū

For compounds of do, see § 209. a. m.

203. Eð, go. ¹	PRINCIPAL	Parts:	eō,	īre,	iī	(īvī),	Itum
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	•	
	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Present	eō, īs, it	eam, eās, eat
	īmus, ītis, eunt	eāmus, eātis, eant
Imperfect	ībam, ībās, ībat	īrem, īrēs, īret
	ībāmus, ībātis, ībant	īrēmus, īrētis, īrent
FUTURE	ībō, ībis, ībit	
	ībimus, ībitis, ībunt	
Perfect	iī (īvī)	ierim (īverim)
PLUPERFECT	ieram (īveram)	īssem (īvissem)
7		

FUTURE PERFECT iero (ivero)

IMPERATIVE

ītō, ītōte PRESENT FUTURE ī ītō, euntō īte

INFINITIVE

itūrus esse FUTURE PRESENT īre Perfect isse (ivisse)

PARTICIPLES

GERUNDIVE eundum FUTURE itūrus iēns, gen. euntis PRESENT GERUND eundī, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE itum, itū

a. The compounds adeo, approach, ineo, enter, and some others, are tran-They are inflected as follows in the passive: —

SUBJUNCTIVE INDICATIVE

Pres.	adeor	IMPF.	adībar	Pres.	adear
	adīris	Fur.	adībor	IMPF.	adīrer
	adītur	PERF.	aditus sum	PERF.	aditus sim
	adimur	PLUP.	aditus eram	PLUP.	aditus essem
	adimini	F.P.	aditus erõ		

adimini

adeuntur

PART. aditus adeundus INFIN. adiri aditus esse

Thus inflected, the forms of eo are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: as, itum est (§ 208. d). The infinitive iri is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 193. N.). The verb vēneō, be sold (i.e. vēnum eō, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.

- b. In the perfect system of eo the forms with v are very rare in the simple verb and unusual in the compounds.
 - c. ii before s is regularly contracted to i: as, isse.

¹ The root of e5 is E1 (weak form 1). This ei becomes I except before a, 0, and u, where it becomes e (cf. eo, eam, eunt). The strong form of the root, i, is shortened before a vowel or final -t; the weak form, I, appears in itum and iturus.

- d. The compound ambio is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation. But it has also ambibat in the imperfect indicative.
 - e. Pro with eo retains its original d: as, prodeo, prodis, prodit.
- 204. Faciō, facere, fēcī, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and, besides the regular forms, the future perfect faxō, perfect subjunctive faxim. The passive of faciō is fiō, fiĕrī, factus sum, be made or become.

The present system of fio is regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is fierem, and the infinitive fieri.

Note. — The forms in brackets are not used in good prose.

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Present	fīō, fīs, fit	fīam, fīās, fīat
	[fīmus], [fītis], fīunt	fīāmus, f īātis, fīa nt
Imperfect	fīēbam, fīēbās, etc.	fiere m, fierēs, etc .
FUTURE	fīam, fīēs, etc.	
Perfect	factus sum	factus sim
PLUPERFECT	factus eram	factus essem
FUTURE PERFECT	factus erō	

IMPERATIVE

[fī, fīte, fītō, ____]¹

INFINITIVE

Present fierī

Perfect factus esse

FUTURE factum īrī

PARTICIPLES

Perfect factus

GERUNDIVE faciendus

- a. Most compounds of fació with prepositions weaken a to in the present stem and to e in the supine stem, and are inflected regularly like verbs in -iö: conficio, conficere, confeci, confectum, finish. conficior, conficio, confectus.
- b. Other compounds retain a, and have -fio in the passive: as, benefacio, -facere, -feci, -factum; passive benefio, -fieri, -factus, benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-fă'cis (§ 12. a, Exc.).
 - c. A few isolated forms of fio occur in other compounds:—
 confit, it happens, confiunt; confiat; confieret, confierent; confiered.
 defit, it lacks, defiunt; defiet; defiat; defiered.
 efflered, to be effected.
 infio, begin (to speak), infit.
 interfiat, let him perish; interfiered, to perish.
 superfit, it remains over; superfiat, superfiered.

¹ The imperative is rarely found, and then only in early writers.

DEFECTIVE VERBS

205. Some verbs have lost the Present System, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are—

coepī,¹ I began	ōdī,² I	hate memi	nī, ³ I remember
	INDICA:	TIVE	
Perfect	соерї	ōdī	$memin\bar{i}$
Pluperfect	coeperam	$ar{ extbf{o}}\mathbf{deram}$	memineram
FUTURE PERFECT	coeperō	$ar{ extbf{o}} extbf{der}ar{ extbf{o}}$	${f meminer}$ ō
	SUBJUNG	CTIVE	
Perfect	coeperim	$\bar{ extsf{o}}$ derim	meminerim
PLUPERFECT	coepissem	$ar{ t o}$ dissem	meminissem
	IMPERA	TIVE	
			mementō
			mementōte
•	INFINIT	rive	
Perfect	coepisse	ōdisse	meminisse
FUTURE	coeptūrus esse	ōsūrus esse	
	PARTICI	PLES	
Perfect	coeptus, begun	ōsus, hating or	hated
FUTURE	coeptūrus	ōsūrus, <i>likely to</i>	hate .

a. The passive of coepī is often used with the passive infinitive: as, coeptus sum vocārī, I began to be called, but coepī vocāre, I began to call. For the present system incipiō is used.

Note. — Early and rare forms are coepio, coepiam, coeperet, coepere.

b. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect of odi and memini have the meanings of a Present, Imperfect, and Future respectively:—

ōdī, I hate; ōderam, I hated (was hating); ōderō, I shall hate.

Note 1. — A present participle meminens is early and late.

Note 2. — Novi and consuevi (usually referred to nosco and consuesco) are often used in the sense of *I know* (have learned) and *I am accustomed* (have become accustomed) as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see 476. N.).

¹ Root AP (as in apiscor) with co(n-).

² Root op, as in ödium.

⁸ Root men, as in mens.

206. Many verbs are found only in the Present System. Such are maereo, -ere, be sorrowful (cf. maestus, sad); ferio, -ire, strike.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, vādō, vādere, in-vāsī, in-vāsum.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms:—

```
A. Âiō, I say:—

INDIC. Pres. âiō, ais,¹ ait; ——, ——, âiunt
IMPF. âiēbam,² âiēbās, etc.

SUBJV. Pres. ——, âiās, âiat; ——, ——, âiant
IMPER. aī (rare)
PART. âiēns
```

The vowels a and i are pronounced separately (a-is, a-it) except sometimes in old or colloquial Latin. Before a vowel, one i stands for two (see $\S 6. c$): — thus $\hat{a}i\bar{o}$ was pronounced $\hat{a}i$ -y \bar{o} and was sometimes written $aii\bar{o}$.

b. Inquam, I say, except in poetry, is used only in direct quotations (cf. the English quoth).

```
INDIC. Pres. inquam, inquis, inquit; inquimus, inquitis (late), inquiunt Impr. —, —, inquiëbat; —, —, —

Fut. —, inquiës, inquiet; —, —, —

Perf. inquil, inquistl, —; —, —, —

IMPER. Pres. inque

Fut. inquitō
```

The only common forms are inquam, inquis, inquit, inquiunt, and the future inquies, inquiet.

c. The deponent fari, to speak, has the following forms: —

```
INDIC. PRES. —, —, fātur; —, —, fantur
Fut. fābor, —, fābitur; —, —, —
PERF. —, —, fātus est; —, —, fātī sunt
PLUP. fātus eram, —, fātus erat; —, —, —

IMPER. PRES. fārē
INFIN. PRES. fārī
PART. PRES. fāns, fantis, etc. (in singular)
PERF. fātus (having spoken)
GER. fandus (to be spoken of)
GERUND, gen. fandī, abl. fandō supine fātū
```

Several forms compounded with the prepositions ex, prae, pro, inter, occur: as, praefatur, praefamur, affari, profatus, interfatur, etc. The compound infans is regularly used as a noun (child). Infandus, nefandus, are used as adjectives, unspeakable, abominable.

¹ The second singular ais with the interrogative -ne is often written ain.

² An old imperfect aibam, aibās, etc. (dissyllabic) is sometimes found.

d. Queo, I can, nequeo, I cannot, are conjugated like eo. They are rarely used except in the present. Queo is regularly accompanied by a negative. The forms given below occur, those in full-faced type in classic prose. The Imperative, Gerund, and Supine are wanting.

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	
Present		Prese	NT	
queō	queam	nequeō (nōn queō)	nequeam	
quis	queās	nequis	nequeās	
quit	queat	nequit	nequeat	
quīmus	queāmus	nequimus	nequeāmus	
q uītis		nequitis		
queunt	queant	nequeunt	nequeant	
Imperfe	СТ	Imperf	ECT	
quibam			nequirem	
quibat	quīret	nequibat	nequiret	
	quirent	nequibant	nequirent	
Future		Future		
quībō		nequībit		
quIbunt		nequibunt		
•		_		
Perfec	T	Perfect		
quīvī		nequivi	nequiverim	
	quīverit (-ierit)	nequisti		
quīvit quīvērunt (-ēre)	•	nequīvit (nequiit) nequīvērunt (-quiēre	nequiverit nequiverint	
4	4) noquivoint	
Pluperf	ECT	Plupere	PECT	
	quivissent	nequiverat (-ierat) nequiverant (-ierant)	_ , _ ,	
		INFINITIVE		
quire	quisse	nequire	nequivisse (-quisse)	
	,	PARTICIPLES		
quiēns		nequiēns, nequeuntēs	3	

Note. — A few passive forms are used with passive infinitives: as, quitur, queuntur, quitus sum, queatur, queantur, nequitur, nequitum; but none of these occurs in classic prose.

e. Quaeso, I ask, beg (original form of quaero), has —

INDIC. Pres. quaeso, quaesumus

Note. — Other forms of quaeso are found occasionally in early Latin. For the perfect system (quaesivi, etc.), see quaero ($\S 211.d$).

f. Ovare, to triumph, has the following:—

INDIC. PRES. ovās, ovat

subjv. Pres. ovet

IMPF. ovaret

PART. ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus

GER. ovandī

g. A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative:—

Pres. singular salvē, plural salvēte, Fur. salvētē, hail! (from salvus, safe and sound). An infinitive salvēre and the indicative forms salveē, salvētis, salvēbis, are rare.

Pres. singular avē (or havē), plural avēte, Fur. avētē, hail or farewell. An infinitive avēre also occurs.

Pres. singular cedo, plural cedite (cette), give, tell.

Pres. singular apage, begone (properly a Greek word).

IMPERSONAL VERBS

207. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the third person singular, the infinitive, and the gerund. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject. The passive of many intransitive verbs is used in the same way.

Conj. 1	II	111	IV	Pass. Conj. 1
it is plain	it is allowed	it chances	it results	it is fought
constat	licet	accidit accidebat accidet accidit acciderat	ēvenit	pūgnātur
constabat	licēbat		ēveniēbat	pūgnābātur
constabit	licēbit		ēveniet	pūgnābitur
constitit	licuit, -itum est		ēvēnit	pūgnātum est
constiterat	licuerat		ēvēnerat	pūgnātum erat
cōnstiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum erit
constet	liceat	accidat	ēveniat	pügnētur
constaret	licēret	accideret	ēvenīret	pügnārētur
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum sit
constitisset	licuisset	accidisset	ēvēnisset	pūgnātum esset
constare	licēre	acciděre	ëvenire	pügnäri
constitisse	licuisse	accidisse	ëvënisse	pügnätum esse
-staturum esse	-itūrum esse	——	-türum esse	pügnätum iri

¹ With impersonal verbs the word it is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though id, hec, illud, are often used nearly in the same way.

208. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows: —

a. Verbs expressing the operations of nature and the time of day: —

vesperāscit (inceptive, § 263. 1), it grows late. lūcīscit hōc, it is getting light. grandinat, it hails. pluit, it rains.

ningit, it snows.
fulgurat, it lightens.
tonat, it thunders.
rorat, the dew falls.

NOTE. — In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, Iuppiter tonat, Jupiter thunders. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones.

b. Verbs of *feeling*, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb $(\S 354. b):$

miseret, it grieves.
piget, it disgusts.
taedet, it wearies.

paenitet (poenitet), it repents. pudet, it shames.

miseret mē, I pity (it distresses me); pudet mē, I am ashamed.

NOTE. — Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, misereor, *I pity* (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, paenitūrus (as from †paeniō), paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est, pigitum est.

c. Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject (cf. §§ 454, 569. 2):—

accidit, contingit, evenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.

libet, it pleases.

licet, it is permitted.

certum est, it is resolved.

constat, it is clear.

placet, it seems good (pleases).

vidētur, it seems, seems good.

decet, it is becoming.

delectat, invat, it delights.
oportet, it is fitting, ought.
necesse est, it is needful.
praestat, it is better.
interest, refert, it concerns.
vacat, there is leisure.
restat, superest, it remains.

NOTE. — Many of these verbs may be used personally; as, vaco, *I have leisure*. Libet and licet have also the passive forms libitum (licitum) est etc. The participles libens and licens are used as adjectives.

d. The passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally (see synopsis in § 207):—

ventum est, they came (there was coming). pūgnātur, there is fighting (it is fought).

itur, some one goes (it is gone).

parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 372).

NOTE. — The impersonal use of the passive proceeds from its original reflexive (or middle) meaning, the action being regarded as accomplishing itself (compare the French cela se fait).

CLASSIFIED LISTS OF VERBS

First Conjugation

209. There are about 360 simple verbs of the First Conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem:

armō, arm (arma, arms); caecō, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulō, be an exile (exsul, an exile) (§ 259).

Their conjugation is usually regular, like amo; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

a. The following verbs form their Perfect and Supine stems irregularly. Those marked * have also regular forms.

crepō, crepuī (-crepāvī), -crepit-, resound.
cubō, *cubuī, -cubit-, lie down.
dō, dăre, dedī, dăt-, give (DA).
domō, domuī, domit-, subdue.
fricō, fricuī, *frict-, rub.
iuvō (ad-iuvō), iūvī, iūt-,¹ help.
micō, micuī, ——, glitter.
mecō, *necuī, necāt- (-nect-), kill.²

plicō, *-plicuī, *-plicit-, fold.
pōtō, pōtāvī, *pōt-, drink.
secō, secuī, sect-, cut.
sonō, sonuī, sonit-,¹ sound.
stō, stetī, -stat- (-stit-), stand.
tonō, tonuī, *-tonit-, thunder.
vetō, vetuī, vetit-, forbid.

Note. — Compounds of these verbs have the following forms: — erepō: con-crepuī, dis-crepuī or -crepāvī; in-crepuī or -crepāvī.

45: circum-, inter-, pessum-, satis-, super-, vēnum-dō, -dedī, -dat-, of the first conjugation. Other compounds belong to the root DHA, put, and are of the third conjugation: as, condō, condĕre, condidī, conditum.

mico: dī-micāvī, -micāt-; ē-micuī, -micāt-.

plicō: re-, sub- (sup-), multi-plicō, -plicāvī, -plicāt-; ex-plicō (unfold), -uī, -it-; (explain), -āvī, -āt-; im-plicō, -āvī (-uī), -ātum (-itum).

stō: cōn-stō, -stitī, (-stātūrus); ad-, re-stō, -stitī, ----; ante- (anti-), inter-, superstō, -stetī, ----; circum-stō, -stetī (-stitī), -----; prae-stō, -stitī, -stit- (-stāt-); dī-stō, ex-stō, no perfect or supine (future participle ex-stātūrus).

Second Conjugation

210. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of the Second Conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of condition, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -sco (§ 263. 1):—

caleō, be warm; calor, warmth; calidus, warm; calēscō, grow warm. timeō, fear; timor, fear; timidus, timid; per-timēsco, to take fright.

¹ Future Participle also in -ātūrus (either in the simple verb or in composition).

² Meco has regularly necavi, necatum, except in composition.

- a. Most verbs of the second conjugation are inflected like moneo, but many lack the supine (as, arceo, ward off; careo, lack; egeo, need; timeo, fear), and a number have neither perfect nor supine (as, maereo, be sad).
 - b. The following keep ē in all the systems:—

dēleō, <i>destroy</i>	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum
fleō, weep	flēre	flē v ī	flētum
neō, sew	nēre	nēvi	[nētum]
vieč, plait	viēre	[viēvī]	viētum
com-pleō, fill up 1	-plēre	-plēvī	-plētum

c. The following show special irregularities: —

algeo, alsī, be cold. ārdeō, ārsī, ārsūrus, burn. audeo, ausus sum, dare. augeō, auxī, auct-, increase. caveo, cavi, caut-, care. cēnseō, cēnsuī, cēns-, value. cieō, cīvī, cit-, excite. doceō, docuī, doct-, teach. faveo, fāvī, faut-, favor. ferveo, fervi (ferbui), ----, glow. foveo, fovi, fot-, cherish. fulgeo, fulsi, —, shine. gaudeo, gavisus sum, rejoice. haereō, haesī, haes-, cling. indulgeo, indulsi, indult-, indulge. iubeō, iussī, iuss-, order. liqueo, licui (liqui), ——, melt. lūceo, lūxī, —, shine. lūgeō, lūxī, —, mourn. maneō, mānsī, māns-, wait. misceo, -cuī, mixt- (mist-), mix. mordeo, momordi, mors-, bite. moveo, movi, mot-, move.

mulceo, mulsi, muls-, soothe. mulgeo, mulsī, muls-, milk. (cō)nīveō, -nīvī (-nīxī), ----, wink. (ab)oleo, -olevī, -olit-, destroy. pendeō, pependī, -pēns-, hang. prandeō, prandī, prāns-, dine. rīdeo, rīsī, -rīs-, laugh. sedeō, **sēdī**, sess-, sit. soleo, solitus sum, be wont. sorbeō, sorbuī (sorpsī), ——, suck. spondeō, spopondī, spōns-, pledge. strīdeō, strīdī, ——, whiz. suādeō, suāsī, suās-, urge. teneo (-tineo), tenui, -tent-, hold. tergeo, tersi, ters-, wipe. tondeo, -totondi (-tondi), tons-, shear. torqueo, torsi, tort-, twist. torreō, torruī, tost-, roast. turgeo, tursi, —, swell. urgeo, ursī, —, urge. videō, vīdī, vīs-, see. voveč, včvi, včt-, vow.

Third Conjugation

- 211. The following lists include most simple verbs of the Third Conjugation, classed according to the formation of the Perfect Stem:—
- a. Forming the perfect stem in s (x) (§ 177. b and note):—

 angō, ānxī, ——, choke.

 carpō, carpsī, carpt-, pluck.

 cēdō, cessī, cess-, yield.

 cingō, cīnxī, cīnct-, bind.

 claudō, clausī, claus-, shut.

 cōmō, cōmpsī, cōmpt-, comb, deck.

 cequō, coxī, coct-, cook.

 -cutiō, -cussī, -cuss-, shake.

¹ And other compounds of -pleo.

dēmō, dēmpsi, dēmpt-, take away. dīcō, dīxi, dict-, say. dīvidō, dīvīsī, dīvīs-, divide. dūcō, dūxī, duct-, guide. ēmungō, -mūnxi, -mūnct-, clean out. figō, fixi, fix-, fix. fingo [fig], finxi, fict-, fashion. flecto, flexi, flex-, bend. -flīgō, -flīxī, -flīct-, ----, smite. fluō, flūxi, flux-, flow. frendō, —, frēs- (fress-), gnash. frīgō, frixī, frict-, fry. gerō, gessī, gest-, carry. iungō, iūnxī, iūnct-, join. laedō, laesī, laes-, hurt. -liciō, -lexī, -lect-, entice (ēlicuī, -licit-). lūdo, lūsī, lūs-, play. mergō, mersī, mers-, plunge. mitto, misi, miss-, send. necto [NEC], nexi (nexui), nex-, weave. nūbō, nūpsi, nūpt-, marry. pecto, pexi, pex-, comb. pergō, perrēxī, perrēct-, go on. pingo [PIG], pinxī, pict-, paint. plango [PLAG], planki, planct-, beat. plaudo, plausi, plaus-, applaud. plecto, plexi, plex-, braid. premō, pressī, press-, press. promo, -mpsi, -mpt-, bring out.

quatio, (-cussi), quass-, shake. rādō, rāsī, rās-, scrape. regō, rēxī, rēct-, *rule*. rēpō, rēpsī, ——, creep. rodo, rosi, ros-, gnaw. scalpo, scalpsi, scalpt-, scrape. scribo, scripsi, script-, write. sculpo, sculpsi, sculpt-, carve. serpo, serpsi, —, crawl. spargo, sparsi, spars-, scatter. -spiciō, -spexī, -spect-, view. -stinguō, -stinxī, -stinct-, quench. stringō, strīnxī, strict-, bind. struč, strūxi, strüct-, build. sūgō, sūxī, sūct-, suck. sūmō, sūmpsī, sūmpt-, *take*. surgō, surrēxī, surrēct-, rise. tegō, tēxī, tēct-, shelter. temnō, -tempsī, -tempt-, despise. tergo, tersi, ters-, wipe. tingo, tīnxī, tinct-, stain. trahō, trāxī, trāct-, drag. trūdō, trūsī, trūs-, thrust. unguō (ungō), ūnxī, ūnct-, anoint. ūrō, ussī, ust-, burn. vādō, -vāsī, -vās-, go. vehō, vēxī, vect-, draw. vīvō, vīxī, vīct-, live.

b. Reduplicated in the perfect (§ 177. c):—

cadō, cecidī, cās-, fall.
caedō, cecidī, caes-, cut.
canō, cecinī, ——, sing.
currō, cucurrī, curs-, run.
discō [DIC], didicī, ——, learn.
-dō [DHA], -didī, -dit- (as in ab-dō, etc.,
with crēdō, vēndō), put.
fallō, fefellī, fals-, deceive.
pangō [PAG], pepigī (-pēgī), pāct-, fasten,
fix, bargain.
parcō, pepercī (parsī), (parsūrus), spare.

pario, peperi, part- (paritūrus), bring forth.

pello, pepuli, puls-, drive.
pendo, pependi, pēns-, weigh.
posco, poposci, ——, demand.
pungo [PUG], pupugi (-pūnxi), pūnct-, prick.
sisto [STA], stitī, stat-, stop.
tango [TAG], tetigī, tāct-, touch.
tendo [TEN], tetendi (-tendi), tent-, stretch.
tundo [TUD], tutudī, tūns- (-tūs-), beat.

c. Adding \mathbf{u} (\mathbf{v}) to the verb-root (§ 177. a):—

alō, aluī, alt- (alit-), nourish. cernō, crēvī, -crēt-, decree. colō, coluī, cult-, dwell, till. compēsco, compēscuī, ——, restrain. consulo, -luī, consult-, consult. crēsco, crēvī, crēt-, increase.

-cumbo [CUB], -cubuī, -cubit-, lie down. depső, depsuï, depst-, knead. fremo, fremui, —, roar. gemo, gemui, —, groan. gigno [GEN], genui, genit-, begct. metō, messuī, -mess-, reap. molo, molui, molit-, grind. occulo, occului, occult-, hide. (ad)olēscō, -ēvī, -ult-, grow up. pāscō, pāvī, pāst-, feed. percello, -culi, -culs-, upset. pono [pos], posui, posit-, put. quiësco, quiëvī, quiët-, rest.

rapio, rapui, rapt-, seize. scisco, scivi, scit-, decree. serō, sēvī, sat-, sow. sero, serui, sert-, entwine. sino, sīvī, sit-, permit. sperno, sprēvī, sprēt-, scorn. sterno, stravi, strat-, strew. sterto, -stertui, ----, snore. · strepō, strepuī, ----, sound. suēscō, suēvī, suēt-, be wont. texō, texuī, text-, weave. tremō, tremuī, —, tremble. vomō, vomuī, ----, vomit.

d. Adding iv to the verb-root (§ 177. f):—

arcessö, 1 -īvī, arcessīt-, summon. capesso, capessivi, —, undertake. cupio, cupivi, cupit-, desire. incessō, incessīvī, —, attack. lacesso, lacessivi, lacessit-, provoke.

petō, petīvī, petīt-, seek. quaero, quaesivi, quaesit-, seek. rudō, rudīvī, ——, bray. sapio, sapivi, —, be wise. tero, trīvī, trīt-, rub.

e. Lengthening the vowel of the root (cf. § 177. d): agō, ēgī, āct-, drive. capiō, cēpī, capt-, take. edő, ēdī, ēsum, eat (see § 201). emō, ēmī, ēmpt-, buy.

faciō, fēcī, fact-, make (see § 204). fodio, fodi, foss-, dig. frango [frag], fregi, fract-, break. fugiō, fūgī, (fugitūrus), flee.

fundo [fud], fūdī, fūs-, pour. iaciō, iēcī, iact-, throw (-iciō, -iect-). lavo, lavi, lot- (laut-), wash (also regular of first conjugation). lego, 2 legi, lect-, gather. lino [LI], levi (livi), lit-, smear. linquo [LIC], -liqui, -lict-, leave. nosco [GNO], novi, not- (co-gnit-, a-gnit-, ad-gnit-), know. rumpo [RUP], rūpī, rupt-, burst. scabo, scabī, ——, scratch. vinco [VIC], vici, vict-, conquer.

f. Retaining the present stem or verb-root (cf. § 177. e): acuō, -uī, -ūt-, sharpen. arguō, -uī, -ūt-, accuse. bibō, bibī, (pōtus), drink. -cendō, -cendī, -cēns-, kindle. (con)gruō, -uī, —, agree. cūdō, -cūdī, -cūs-, forge. facesso, -ii (facessi), facessit-, execute -fendō, -fendī, -fēns-, ward off. findo [FID], fidī,8 fiss-, split. īcō, īcī, ict-, hit.

imbuo, -uī, -ūt-, give a taste of. luō, luī, -lūt-, wash. mando, mandi, mans-, chew. metuō, -uī, -ūt-, fear. minuō, -uī, -ūt-, lessen. -nuō, -nuī, ----, nod. pandō, pandī, pāns- (pass-), open. pīnsō, -sī, pīns- (pīnst-, pīst-), bruise. prehendō, -hendī, -hēns-, seize. ruō, ruī, rut- (ruitūrus), fall.

¹ Sometimes accerso, etc.

² The following compounds of lego have -lexi: dīligo, intellego, neglego.

8 In this the perfect stem is the same as the verb-root, having lost the reduplication (§ 177. c. N.).

scandō, -scendī, -scēnsus, climb.
scindō [SCID], scidī,¹ sciss-, tear.
sīdō, sīdī (-sēdī), -sess-, settle.
solvō, solvī, solūt-, loose, pay.
spuō, -uī, ----, spit.
statuō, -uī, -ūt-, establish.
sternuo, -uī, ----, sneeze.
strīdō, strīdī, ----, whiz.

suō, suī, sūt-, sew.

(ex)uō, -uī, -ūt-, put off.

tribuō, -uī, -ūt-, assign.

vellō, vellī (-vulsī), vuls-, pluck.

verrō, -verrī, vers-, sweep.

vertō, vertī, vers-, turn.

vīsō [VID], vīsī, vīs-, visit.

volvō, volvī, volūt-, turn.

Note. — Several have no perfect or supine: as, claudo, limp; fatīsco, gape; hīsco, yawn; tollo (sustulī, sublatum, supplied from suffero), raise; vergo, incline.

Fourth Conjugation

212. There are — besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ŭriō, as, ēsuriō, be hungry (cf. § 263.4) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs: like —

crocio, croak; mūgio, bellow; tinnio, tinkle.

- a. Most verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are conjugated regularly, like audio, though a number lack the supine.
 - b. The following verbs show special peculiarities: —

amiciō, amixī (-cuī), amict-, clothe.
aperiō, aperuī, apert-, open.
comperiō, -perī, compert-, find.
farciō, farsī, fartum, stuff.
feriō, ---, strike.
fulciō, fulsī, fult-, prop.
hauriō, hausī, haust- (hausūrus), drain.
operiō, operuī, opert-, cover.
reperiō, repperī, repert-, find.

saepiō, saepsī, saept-, hedge in.
saliō (-siliō), saluī (saliī), [salt- (-sult-)],
leap.
sanciō [sac], sānxī, sānct-, sanction.
sarciō, sarsī, sart-, patch.
sentiō, sēnsī, sēns-, feel.
sepeliō, sepelīvī, sepult-, bury.
veniō, vēnī, vent-, come.
vinciō, vīnxī, vīnct-, bind.

For Index of Verbs, see pp. 436 ff.

¹ See footnote 3, page 124.

PARTICLES

213. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are called Particles.

In their origin Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are either (1) case-forms, actual or extinct, or (2) compounds and phrases.

Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions (§§ 219 and 222).

ADVERBS

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS

- 214. Adverbs are regularly formed from Adjectives as follows:
- a. From adjectives of the first and second declensions by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to -ē: as, cārē, dearly, from cārus, dear (stem cāro-); amīcē, like a friend, from amīcus, friendly (stem amīco-).

Note. — The ending -ē is a relic of an old ablative in -ēd (cf. § 43. N. 1).

b. From adjectives of the third declension by adding -ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom. -ns) lose the t-. All others are treated as i-stems: —

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem forti-), brave.

ācriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager.

vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilans (stem vigilant-).

prüdenter, prudently, from prüdens (stem prüdent-).

aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-).

Note. — This suffix is perhaps the same as -ter in the Greek - $\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma$ s and in uter, alter. If so, these adverbs are in origin either neuter accusatives (cf. d) or masculine nominatives.

- c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (-ē and -ter). Thus dūrus, hard, has both dūrē and dūriter; miser, wretched, has both miserē and miseriter.
- d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, multum, much; facile, easily; quid, why.

This is the origin of the ending in the comparative degree of adverbs (§ 218): as, ācrius, more keenly (positive ācriter); facilius, more easily (positive facile).

Note. — These adverbs are strictly cognate accusatives (§ 390).

e. The ablative singular neuter or (less commonly) feminine of adjectives, pronouns, and nouns may be used adverbially: as, falso, falsely; cito,

quickly (with shortened o); recta (via), straight (straightway); crebro, frequently; volgo, commonly; forte, by chance; sponte, of one's own accord.

Note. — Some adverbs are derived from adjectives not in use: as, abunde, plentifully (as if from †abundus; cf. abunde, abound); saepe, often (as if from †saepis, dense, close-packed; cf. saepes, hedge, and saepie, hedge in).

- 215. Further examples of Adverbs and other Particles which are in origin case-forms of nouns or pronouns are given below. In some the case is not obvious, and in some it is doubtful.
- 1. Neuter Accusative forms: non (for ne-oinom, later unum), not; iterum (comparative of i-, stem of is), a second time; demum (superlative of de, down), at last.
- 2. Feminine Accusatives: partim, partly. So statim, on the spot; saltim, at least (generally saltem), from lost nouns in -tis (genitive -tis). Thus -tim became a regular adverbial termination; and by means of it adverbs were made from many noun- and verb-stems immediately, without the intervention of any form which could have an accusative in -tim: as, separatim, separately, from separatus, separate. Some adverbs that appear to be feminine accusative are possibly instrumental: as, palam, openly; perperam, wrongly; tam, so; quam, as.
- 3. Plural Accusatives: as, alias, elsewhere; foras, out of doors (as end of motion). So perhaps quia, because.
- 4. Ablative or Instrumental forms: quā, where; intrā, within; extrā, outside; quī, how; aliquī, somehow; forīs, out of doors; quō, whither; adeō, to that degree; ultrō, beyond; citrō, this side (as end of motion); retrō, back; illōc (for †illō-ce), weakened to illūc, thither. Those in -trō are from comparative stems (cf. ūls, cis, re-).
- 5. Locative forms: ibi, there; ubi, where; illi, illi-c, there; peregri (peregre), abroad; hic (for †hi-ce), here. Also the compounds hodie (probably for †hodie), to-day; perendie, day after to-morrow.
- 6. Of uncertain formation: (1) those in -tus (usually preceded by i), with an ablative meaning: as, funditus, from the bottom, utterly; divinitus, from above, providentially; intus, within; penitus, within; (2) those in -dem, -dam, -dō: as, quidem, indeed; quondam, once; quandō (cf. dōnec), when; (3) dum (probably accusative of time), while; iam, now.
- 216. A phrase or short sentence has sometimes grown together into an adverb (cf. notwithstanding, nevertheless, besides):—

postmodo, presently (a short time after).
dēnuō (for dē novō), anew.
vidēlicet (for vidē licet), to wit (see, you may).
nihilōminus, nevertheless (by nothing the less).

Note. — Other examples are: — anteā, old antideā, before (ante eā, probably ablative or instrumental); īlicō (in locō), on the spot, immediately; prōrsus, absolutely (prō vorsus, straight ahead); rūrsus (re-vorsus), again; quotannīs, yearly (quot annīs, as many years as there are); quam-ob-rem, wherefore; cōminus, hand to hand (con manus); ēminus, at long range (ex manus); nīmīrum, without doubt (nī mīrum); ob-viam (as in īre obviam, to go to meet); prīdem (cf. prae and -dem in i-dem), for some time; forsan (fors an), perhaps (it's a chance whether); forsitan (fors sit an), perhaps (it would be a chance whether); scīlicet (†scī, licet), that is to say (know, you may; cf. ī-licet, you may go); āctūtum (āctū, on the act, and tum, then).

hic, here.

hāc, by this way.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

217. The classes of Adverbs, with examples, are as follows: —

hinc, hence.

a. Adverbs of Place 1

hūc, hither.

ibi, there.	eō, thither.	inde, thence.	eā, by that way.
istic, there.	istūc, thither.	istinc, thence.	istā, by that way.
•	illūc, thither.	•	illā (illāc), '' ''
ubi, where.	quo, whither.	unde, whence.	quā, by what way.
alicubi, somewhere.	aliquo, somewhither, (to) somewhere.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	aliquā, by someway.
ibidem, in the same place.	eodem, to the same place.	indidem, from the same place.	eadem, by the same way.
•	aliō, elsewhere, to another place.	aliunde, from an- other place.	aliā, in another way.
ubiubi, wherever.	quōquō, whitherso- ever.	undecunque, whence- soever.	quāquā, in whatever way.
, -	•	undique, from every quarter.	
sīcubi, if anywhere.	siquo, if anywhere (anywhither).	sicunde, if from any- where.	sīquā, if anywhere.
,	nēquō, lest any- whither.	nēcunde, lest from anywhere.	• '

Note. — The demonstrative adverbs hic, ibi, istic, illi, illic, and their correlatives, correspond in signification with the pronouns hic, is, iste, ille (see § 146), and are often equivalent to these pronouns with a preposition: as, inde = ab eō, etc. So the relative or interrogative ubi corresponds with qui (quis), ali-cubi with aliquis, ubiubi with quisquis, si-cubi with siquis (see §§ 147-151, with the table of correlatives in § 152).

ūsque, all the way to; usquam, anywhere; nusquam, nowhere; citro, to this side; intro, inwardly; ultro, beyond (or freely, i.e. beyond what is required); porro, further on.

quōrsum (for quō vorsum, whither turned?), to what end? hōrsum, this way; prōrsum, forward (prōrsus, utterly); intrōrsum, inwardly; retrōrsum, backward; sūrsum, upward; deorsum, downward; seorsum, apart; aliōrsum, another way.

b. Adverbs of Time

quando, when? (interrogative); cum (quom), when (relative); ut, when, as; nunc, now; tunc (tum), then; mox, presently; iam, already; dum, while; iam diū, iam dūdum, iam prīdem, long ago, long since.

¹ All these adverbs were originally case-forms of pronouns. The forms in -bi and -īc are locative, those in -ō and -ūc, -ā and -āc, ablative (see § 215); those in -inc are from -im (of uncertain origin) with the particle -ce added (thus illim, illin-c).

- prīmum (prīmō), first; deinde (posteā), next after; postrēmum (postrēmō), finally; posteāquam, postquam, when (after that, as soon as).
- umquam (unquam), ever; numquam (nunquam), never; semper, always.
- aliquando, at some time, at length; quandoque (quandocumque), whenever; denique, at last.
- quotiens (quoties), how often; totiens, so often; aliquotiens, a number of times.
- cotīdiē, every day; hodiē, to-day; herī, yesterday; crās, to-morrow; prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; in diēs, from day to day.
- nondum, not yet; necdum, nor yet; vixdum, scarce yet; quam primum, as soon as possible; saepe, often; crebro, frequently; iam non, no longer.

c. Adverbs of Manner, Degree, or Cause

- quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much, although; paene, almost; magis, more; valdē, greatly; vix, hardly.
- cūr, quārē, why; ideō, idcircō, proptereā, on this account, because; eō, therefore; ergō, itaque, igitur, therefore.
- ita, sīc, so; ut (utī), as, how; utut, utcumque, however.

d. Interrogative Particles

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

nonne, annon, whether not; numquid, ecquid, whether at all.

On the use of the Interrogative Particles, see §§ 332, 335.

e. Negative Particles

non, not (in simple denial); haud, minime, not (in contradiction); ne, not (in prohibition); neve, neu, nor; nedum, much less.

nē, lest; neque, nec, nor; nē . . . quidem, not even.

non modo . . . vērum (sed) etiam, not only . . . but also.

non modo . . . sed në . . . quidem, not only NOT . . . but not even.

sī minus, if not; quo minus (quominus), so as not.

quin (relative), but that; (interrogative), why not?

nē, nec (in composition), not; so in nesciō, I know not; negō, I say no (âiō, I say yes); negōtium, business (†nec-ōtium); nēmō (nē- and hemō, old form of homō), no one; nē quis, lest any one; neque enim, for . . . not.

For the use of Negative Particles, see § 325 ff.

For the Syntax and Peculiar uses of Adverbs, see § 320 ff.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

218. The Comparative of Adverbs is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding adjective; the Superlative is the Adverb in -ē formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective:—

cārē, dearly (from cārus, dear); cārius, cārissimē.

miserē (miseriter), wretchedly (from miser, wretched); miserius, miserrimē.

leviter (from levis, light); levius, levissimē.

audācter (audāciter) (from audāx, bold); audācius, audācissimē.

benē, well (from bonus, good); melius, optimē.

malē, ill (from malus, bad); pēius, pesaimē.

diū, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.

potius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.

saepe, often; saepius, oftener, again; saepissimē.

satis, enough; satius, preferable.

secus, otherwise; sētius, worse.

multum (multō), magis, maximē, much, more, most.

parum, not enough; minus, less; minimē, least.

nūper, newly; nūperrimē.

temperē, seasonably; temperius.

Note. — In poetry the comparative mage is sometimes used instead of magis.

PREPOSITIONS

219. Prepositions were not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but have become specialized in use. They developed comparatively late in the history of language. In the early stages of language development the cases alone were sufficient to indicate the sense, but, as the force of the case-endings weakened, adverbs were used for greater precision (cf. § 338). These adverbs, from their habitual association with particular cases, became Prepositions; but many retained also their independent function as adverbs.

Most prepositions are true case-forms: as, the comparative ablatives extrā, īnfrā, suprā (for †exterā, †īnferā, †superā), and the accusatives circum, cōram, cum (cf. § 215). Circiter is an adverbial formation from circum (cf. § 214. b. n.); praeter is the comparative of prae, propter of prope.¹ Of the remainder, versus is a petrified nominative (participle of vertō); adversus is a compound of versus; trāns is probably an old present participle (cf. in-trā-re); while the origin of the brief forms ab, ad, dē, ex, ob, is obscure and doubtful.

220. Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.

a. The following prepositions are used with the Accusative: -

circiter, about. ad, to. intrā, inside. adversus, against. cis, citrā, this side. iūxtā, near. adversum, towards. contră, against. ob, on account of. ergā, towards. ante, before. penes, in the power of. per, through. extră, outside. apud, at, near. pone, behind. infrā, below. circa, around. eircum, around. inter, among. post, after.

¹ The case-form of these prepositions in -ter is doubtful.

praeter, beyond. prope, near.

secundum, next to. suprā, above.

ultra, on the further side. versus, towards.

propter, on account of.

trans, across.

b. The following prepositions are used with the Ablative: -1

ā, ăb, abs, away from, by. absque, without, but for. coram, in presence of. cum, with. dē, from.

ē, ex, out of. prae, in comparison with. pro, in front of, for. sine, without. tenus, up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning: —

in, into, in.

sub, under.

subter, beneath. super, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place:

venit in sedis, he came into the house; erat in sedibus, he was in the house. disciplina in Britanniā reperta atque inde in Galliam trānslāta esse exīstimatur, the system is thought to have been discovered in Great Britain and thence brought over to Gaul.

sub ilice consederat, he had seated himself under an ilex.

sub leges mittere orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).

221. The uses of the Prepositions are as follows: —

- 1. A, ab, away from, from, off from, with the ablative.
- a. Of place: as, ab urbe profectus est, he set out from the city.
- b. Of time: (1) from: as, ab horā tertiā ad vesperam, from the third hour till evening; (2) just after: as, — ab eō magistrātū, after [holding] that office.
- c. Idiomatic uses: ā reliquis different, they differ from the others; ā parvulis, from early childhood; prope ab urbe, near (not far from) the city; liberare ab, to set free from; occisus ab hoste (periit ab hoste), slain by an enemy; ab hac parte, on this side; ab re eius, to his advantage; a re publica, for the interest of the state.
 - 2. Ad, to, towards, at, near, with the accusative (cf. in, into).
- a. Of place: as, ad urbem venit, he came to the city; ad meridiem, towards the south; ad exercitum, to the army; ad hostem, toward the enemy; ad urbem, ncar the city.
 - b. Of time: as, ad nonam horam, till the ninth hour.
 - c. With persons: as, ad eum vēnit, he came to him.

¹ For palam etc., see § 432.

² Ab signifies direction from the object, but often towards the speaker; compare de, down from, and ex, out of.

- d. Idiomatic uses: ad supplicia descendunt, they resort to punishment; ad haec respondit, to this he answered; ad tempus, at the [fit] time; adire ad rem publicam, to go into public life; ad petendam pacem, to seek peace; ad latera, on the flank; ad arma, to arms; ad hunc modum, in this way; quem ad modum, how, as; ad centum, nearly a hundred; ad hoc, besides; omnes ad unum, all to a man; ad diem, on the day.
 - 3. Ante, in front of, before, with the accusative (cf. post, after).
- a. Of place: as, ante portam, in front of the gate; ante exercitum, in advance of the army.
 - b. Of time: as, ante bellum, before the war.
- c. Idiomatic uses: ante urbem captam, before the city was taken; ante diem quintum (a.d.v.) Kal., the fifth day before the Calends; ante quadriennium, four years before or ago; ante tempus, too soon (before the time).
 - 4. Apud, at, by, among, with the accusative.
- a. Of place (rare and archaic): as, apud forum, at the forum (in the market-place).
- b. With reference to persons or communities: as, apud Helvētiōs, among the Helvetians; apud populum, before the people; apud aliquem, at one's house; apud sē, at home or in his senses; apud Cicerōnem, in [the works of] Cicero.
 - 5. Circā, about, around, with the accusative (cf. circum, circiter).
- a. Of place: templa circā forum, the temples about the forum; circā sē habet, he has with him (of persons).
- b. Of time or number (in poetry and later writers): circā eandem hōram, about the same hour; circā īdūs Octōbrīs, about the fifteenth of October; circā decem mīlia, about ten thousand.
- c. Figuratively (in later writers), about, in regard to (cf. dē): circā quem pūgna est, with regard to whom, etc.; circā deōs neglegentior, rather neglectful of (i.e. in worshipping) the gods.
 - 6. Circiter, about, with the accusative.
- a. Of time or number: circiter idus Novembris, about the thirteenth of November; circiter meridiem, about noon.
 - 7. Circum, about, around, with the accusative.
- a. Of place: circum haec loca, hereabout; circum Capuam, round Capua; circum illum, with him; legătio circum insulas missa, an embassy sent to the islands round about; circum amīcos, to his friends round about.
 - 8. Contrā, opposite, against, with the accusative. contrā Ītaliam, over against Italy; contrā haec, in answer to this.
- a. Often as adverb: as, haec contrā, this in reply; contrā autem, but on the other hand; quod contrā, whereas, on the other hand.
 - 9. Cum, with, together with, with the ablative.

- a. Of place: as, vāde mēcum, go with me; cum omnibus impedimentis, with all [their] baggage.
 - b. Of time: as, primā cum lūce, at early dawn (with first light).
- c. Idiomatic uses: māgnō cum dolōre, with great sorrow; commūnicāre aliquid cum aliquō, share something with some one; cum malō suō, to his own hurt; cōnflīgere cum hoste, to fight with the enemy; esse cum tēlō, to go armed; cum silentiō, in silence.
- 10. De, down from, from, with the ablative (cf. ab, away from; ex, out of).
- a. Of place: as, dē caelō dēmissus, sent down from heaven; dē nāvibus dēsilīre, to jump down from the ships.
- b. Figuratively, concerning, about, of: 1 as, cognoscit de Clodi caede, he learns of the murder of Clodius; consilia de bello, plans of war.
- c. In a partitive sense (compare ex), out of, of: as, unus de plebe, one of the people.
- d. Idiomatic uses: multīs dē causīs, for many reasons; quā dē causā, for which reason; dē improvīso, of a sudden; dē industriā, on purpose; dē integro, anew; dē tertiā vigiliā, just at midnight (starting at the third watch); dē mēnse Decembrī nāvigāre, to sail as early as December.
- 11. Ex, ē, from (the midst, opposed to in), out of, with the ablative (cf. ab and dē).
- a. Of place: as, ex omnibus partibus silvae ēvolāvērunt, they flew out from all parts of the forest; ex Hispāniā, [a man] from Spain.
- b. Of time: as, ex eō diē quīntus, the fifth day from that (four days after); ex hōc diē, from this day forth.
- c. Idiomatically or less exactly: ex consulatu, right after his consulship; ex êius sententia, according to his opinion; ex aequo, justly; ex improviso, unexpectedly; ex tua re, to your advantage; magna ex parte, in a great degree; ex equo pugnare, to fight on horseback; ex usu, expedient; e regione, opposite; quaerere ex aliquo, to ask of some one; ex senatus consulto, according to the decree of the senate; ex fuga, in [their] flight (proceeding immediately from it); unus e filis, one of the sons.
 - 12. In, with the accusative or the ablative.
 - 1. With the accusative, into (opposed to ex).
 - a. Of place: as, in Italiam contendit, he hastens into Italy.
 - b. Of time, till, until: as, in lücem, till daylight.
- c. Idiomatically or less exactly: in meridiem, towards the south; amor in (ergā, adversus) patrem, love for his father; in āram confūgit, he fled to the altar (on the steps, or merely to); in dies, from day to day; in longitūdinem, lengthwise; in lātitūdinem patēbat, extended in width; in haec verba iūrāre, to swear to these words; hunc in modum, in this way; orātio in Catilinam, a speech against

¹ Of originally meant from (cf. off).

Catiline; in perpetuum, forever; in pêius, for the worse; in diem vivere, to live from hand to mouth (for the day).

2. With the ablative, in, on, among.

In very various connections: as, — in castris, in the camp (cf. ad castra, to, at, or near the camp); in mari, on the sea; in urbe esse, to be in town; in tempore, in season; in scribendo, while writing; est mihi in animo, I have it in mind, I intend; in ancoris, at anchor; in hoc homine, in the case of this man; in dubio esse, to be in doubt.

- 13. Infrā, below, with the accusative.
- a. Of place: as, ad mare infra oppidum, by the sea below the town; infra caelum, under the sky.
- b. Figuratively or less exactly: as, infrā Homērum, later than Homer; infrā trēs pedēs, less than three feet; infrā elephantos, smaller than elephants; infrā infimos omnis, the lowest of the low.
 - 14. Inter, between, among, with the accusative.

inter mē et Scīpionem, between myself and Scipio; inter os et offam, between the cup and the lip (the mouth and the morsel); inter hostium tela, amid the weapons of the enemy; inter omnis primus, first of all; inter bibendum, while drinking; inter se loquuntur, they talk together.

- 15. Ob, towards, on account of, with the accusative.
- a. Literally: (1) of motion (archaic): as, ob Rōmam, towards Rome (Ennius); ob viam, to the road (preserved as adverb, in the way of). (2) Of place in which, before, in a few phrases: as, ob oculōs, before the eyes.
- b. Figuratively, in return for (mostly archaic, probably a word of account, balancing one thing against another): as, ob mulierem, in pay for the woman; ob rem, for gain. Hence applied to reason, cause, and the like, on account of (a similar mercantile idea), for: as, ob eam causam, for that reason; quam ob rem (quamobrem), wherefore, why.
 - 16. Per, through, over, with the accusative.
- a. Of motion: as, per urbem ire, to go through the city; per mūrōs, over the walls.
 - b. Of time: as, per hiemem, throughout the winter.
- c. Figuratively, of persons as means or instruments: as, per homines idoneos, through the instrumentality of suitable persons; licet per me, you (etc.) may for all me. Hence, stat per me, it is through my instrumentality; so, per se, in and of itself.
- d. Weakened, in many adverbial expressions: as, per iocum, in jest; per speciem, in show, ostentatiously.
 - 17. Prae, in front of, with the ablative.
- a. Literally, of place (in a few connections): as, prae sē portāre, to carry in one's arms; prae sē ferre, to carry before one, (hence figuratively) exhibit, proclaim ostentatiously, make known.

- b. Figuratively, of hindrance, as by an obstacle in front (compare English for): as, prae gaudio conticuit, he was silent for joy.
- c. Of comparison: as, prae mägnitüdine corporum suorum, in comparison with their own great size.
 - 18. Praeter, along by, by, with the accusative.
- a. Literally: as, praeter castra, by the camp (along by, in front of); praeter oculos, before the eyes.
- b. Figuratively, beyond, besides, more than, in addition to, except: as, praeter spem, beyond hope; praeter alios, more than others; praeter paucos, with the exception of a few.
 - 19. Pro, in front of, with the ablative.
 - sedēns pro aede Castoris, sitting in front of the temple of Castor; pro populo, in presence of the people. So pro rostris, on [the front of] the rostra; pro contione, before the assembly (in a speech).
- a. In various idiomatic uses: pro lege, in defence of the law; pro vitula, instead of a heifer; pro centum milibus, as good as a hundred thousand; pro rata parte, in due proportion; pro hac vice, for this once; pro consule, in place of consul; pro viribus, considering his strength; pro virili parte, to the best of one's ability; pro tua prudentia, in accordance with your wisdom.
 - 20. Propter, near, by, with the accusative.

propter te sedet, he sits next you. Hence, on account of (cf. all along of): as, — propter metum, through fear.

- 21. Secundum, just behind, following, with the accusative.
- a. Literally: as, Ite secundum mē (Plaut.), go behind me; secundum lītus, near the shore; secundum flūmen, along the stream (cf. secundō flūmine, down stream).
 - b. Figuratively, according to: as, -- secundum nātūram, according to nature.
 - 22. Sub, under, up to, with the accusative or the ablative.
- 1. Of motion, with the accusative: as, sub montem succedere, to come close to the hill.
- a. Idiomatically: sub noctem, towards night; sub lūcem, near daylight; sub haec dicta, at (following) these words.
- 2. Of rest, with the ablative: as, sub Iove, in the open air (under the heaven, personified as Jove); sub monte, at the foot of the hill.
 - a. Idiomatically: sub eodem tempore, about the same time (just after it).
- 23. Subter, under, below, with the accusative (sometimes, in poetry, the ablative).

subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle; but, — subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.

24. Super,² with the accusative or the ablative.

1 Old participle of sequor.

² Comparative of sub.

- 1. With the accusative, above, over, on, beyond, upon.
- a. Of place: super vallum praecipitari (Iug. 58), to be hurled over the rampart; super lateres coria inducuntur (B.C. ii. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks; super terrae tumulum statui (Legg. ii. 65), to be placed on the mound of earth; super Numidiam (Iug. 19), beyond Numidia.
- b. Idiomatically or less exactly: vulnus super vulnus, wound upon wound; super vinum (Q. C. viii. 4), over his wine.
- 2. With the ablative, concerning, about (the only use with this case in prose).
 - hāc super rē, concerning this thing; super tālī rē, about such an affair; litterās super tantā rē exspectāre, to wait for a letter in a matter of such importance.
- a. Poetically, in other senses: ligna super foco large reponens (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire; nocte super media (Aen. ix. 61), after midnight.
 - 25. Suprā, on top of, above, with the accusative.
 - suprā terram, on the surface of the earth. So also figuratively: as, suprā hanc memoriam, before our remembrance; suprā morem, more than usual; suprā quod, besides.
- 26. Tenus (postpositive), as far as, up to, regularly with the ablative, sometimes with the genitive (cf. § 359. b).
- 1. With the ablative: Taurō tenus, as far as Taurus; capulō tenus, up to the hilt.
 - 2. With the genitive: Cumārum tenus (Fam. viii. 1. 2), as far as Cumae.
 - Note 1. Tenus is frequently connected with the feminine of an adjective pronoun, making an adverbial phrase: as, hactenus, hitherto; quatenus, so far as; de hac re hactenus, so much for that (about this matter so far).
 - Note 2.— Tenus was originally a neuter noun, meaning line or extent. In its use with the genitive (mostly poetical) it may be regarded as an adverbial accusative (§ 397. a).
 - 27. Trans, across, over, through, by, with the accusative.
 - a. Of motion: as, trāns mare currunt, they run across the sea; trāns flūmen ferre, to carry over a river; trāns aethera, through the sky; trāns caput iace, throw over your head.
 - b. Of rest: as, trans Rhenum incolunt, they live across the Rhine.
 - 28. Ultrā, beyond (on the further side), with the accusative.
 - cis Padum ultrāque, on this side of the Po and beyond; ultrā eum numerum, more than that number; ultrā fidem, incredible; ultrā modum, immoderate.

Note. — Some adverbs appear as prepositions: as, intus, insuper (see § 219). For Prepositions in Compounds, see § 267.

CONJUNCTIONS

- 222. Conjunctions, like prepositions (cf. § 219), are closely related to adverbs, and are either petrified cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, or obscured phrases: as, quod, an old accusative; dum, probably an old accusative (cf. tum, cum); vērō, an old neuter ablative of vērus; nihilōminus, none the less; proinde, lit. forward from there. Most conjunctions are connected with pronominal adverbs, which cannot always be referred to their original case-forms.
- 223. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes, Coördinate and Subordinate:—
- a. Coördinate, connecting coördinate or similar constructions (see § 278. 2. a). These are:—
- 1. Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or separation of thought as well as of words: as, et, and; aut, or; neque, nor.
- 2. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, sed, but.
 - 3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, nam, for.
 - 4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, igitur, therefore.
- **b.** Subordinate, connecting a subordinate or independent clause with that on which it depends (see § 278. 2. b). These are:—
 - 1. Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, sī, if; nisi, unless.
 - 2. Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, ac sī, as if.
- 3. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
 - 4. Temporal: as, postquam, after.
 - 5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, ut, so that.
 - 6. Final, expressing purpose: as, ut, in order that; ne, that not.
 - 7. Causal, expressing cause: as, quia, because.
- 224. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. The following list includes the common conjunctions ¹ and conjunctive phrases:—

Coördinate

a. Copulative and Disjunctive

et, -que, atque (ac), and.
et . . . et; et . . . -que (atque); -que . . . et; -que . . . -que (poetical), both . . . and.
etiam, quoque, neque non (necnon), quin etiam, itidem (item), also.
cum . . . tum; tum . . . tum, both . . . and; not only . . . but also.

¹ Some of these have been included in the classification of adverbs. See also list of Correlatives, § 152.

quā...quā, on the one hand...on the other hand.

modo...modo, now...now.

aut...aut; vel...vel (-ve), either...or.

sīve (seu)...sīve, whether...or.

nec (neque)...nec (neque); neque...nec; nec...neque (rare), neither...nor.

et...neque, both...and not.

nec...et; nec (neque)...-que, neither (both not)...and.

b. Adversative

sed, autem, vērum, vērō, at, atqui, but. tamen, attamen, sed tamen, vērum tamen, but yet, nevertheless. nihilōminus, none the less. at vērō, but in truth; enimvērō, for in truth. cēterum, on the other hand, but.

c. Causal

nam, namque, enim, etenim, for. quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, wherefore, whence.

d. Illative

ergō, igitur, itaque, ideō, idcircō, inde, proinde, therefore, accordingly.

SUBORDINATE

a. Conditional

sī, if; sīn, but if; nisi (nī), unless, if not; quod sī, but if. modo, dum, dummodo, sī modo, if only, provided. dummodo nē (dum nē, modo nē), provided only not.

b. Comparative

ut, utī, sīcut, just as; velut, as, so as; prout, praeut, ceu, like as, according as. tamquam (tanquam), quasi, ut sī, ac sī, velut, velutī, velut sī, as if. quam, atque (ac), as, than.

c. Concessive

etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, even if; quamquam (quanquam), although. quamvīs, quantumvīs, quamlibet, quantumlibet, however much. licet (properly a verb), ut, cum (quom), though, suppose, whereas.

d. Temporal

cum (quom), quandō, when; ubi, ut, when, as; cum prīmum, ut prīmum, ubi prīmum, simul, simul ac, simul atque, as soon as; postquam (posteāquam), after. prius . . . quam, ante . . . quam, before; non ante . . . quam, not . . . until. dum, ūsque dum, donec, quoad, until, as long as, while.

e. Consecutive and Final

ut (utī), quō, so that, in order that.

nē, ut nē, lest (that . . . not, in order that not); nēve (neu), that not, nor.

quīn (after negatives), quōminus, but that (so as to prevent), that not.

f. Causal

quia, quod, quoniam (†quom-iam), quando, because.
cum (quom), since.
quandoquidem, si quidem, quippe, ut pote, since indeed, inasmuch as.
propterea . . . quod, for this reason . . . that.

On the use of Conjunctions, see §§ 323, 324.

INTERJECTIONS

- 225. Some Interjections are mere natural exclamations of feeling; others are derived from inflected parts of speech, e.g. the imperatives em, lo (probably for eme, take); age, come, etc. Names of deities occur in hercle, pol (from Pollux), etc. Many Latin interjections are borrowed from the Greek, as euge, euhoe, etc.
- 226. The following list comprises most of the Interjections in common use:—

ō, ēn, ecce, ehem, papae, vāh (of astonishment).
iō, ēvae, ēvoe, euhoe (of joy).
heu, ěheu, vae, alas (of sorrow).
heus, eho, ehodum, ho (of calling); st, hist.
êia, euge (of praise).
prō (of attestation): as, prō pudor, shame!

FORMATION OF WORDS

227. All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined. No other combination is possible for the formation either of inflections or of stems. Thus, in fact, words (since roots and stems are significant elements, and so words) are first placed side by side, then brought under one accent, and finally felt as one word. The gradual process is seen in sea voyage, sea-nymph, seaside. But as all derivation, properly so called, appears as a combination of uninflected stems, every type of formation in use must antedate inflection. Hence words were not in strictness derived either from nouns or from verbs, but from stems which were neither, because they were in fact both; for the distinction between noun-stems and verb-stems had not yet been made.

After the development of Inflection, however, that one of several kindred words which seemed the simplest was regarded as the *primitive* form, and from this the other words of the group were thought to be *derived*. Such supposed processes of formation were then imitated, often erroneously, and in this way new modes of derivation arose. Thus new adjectives were formed from nouns, new nouns from adjectives, new adjectives from verbs, and new verbs from adjectives and nouns.

In course of time the real or apparent relations of many words became confused, so that nouns and adjectives once supposed to come from nouns were often assigned to verbs, and others once supposed to come from verbs were assigned to nouns.

Further, since the language was constantly changing, many words went out of use, and do not occur in the literature as we have it. Thus many Derivatives survive of which the Primitive is lost.

Finally, since all conscious word-formation is imitative, intermediate steps in derivation were sometimes omitted, and occasionally apparent Derivatives occur for which no proper Primitive ever existed.

ROOTS AND STEMS

228. Roots 1 are of two kinds:—

- 1. Verbal, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).
- 2. Pronominal, expressing ideas of position and direction.

From verbal roots come all parts of speech except pronouns and certain particles derived from pronominal roots.

229. Stems are either identical with roots or derived from them. They are of two classes: (1) Noun-stems (including Adjective-stems) and (2) Verb-stems.

Note. — Noun-stems and verb-stems were not originally different (see p. 163), and in the consciousness of the Romans were often confounded; but in general they were treated as distinct.

230. Words are formed by inflection: (1) from roots inflected as stems; (2) from derived stems (see § 232).

¹ For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 24, 25.

- 231. A root used as a stem may appear —
- a. With a short vowel: as, duc-is (dux), DUC; nec-is (nex); i-s, i-d. So in verbs: as, es-t, fer-t (cf. § 174. 2).
- **b.** With a long vowel 1: as, lūc-is (lūx), Luc; pāc-is (pāx). So in verbs: dūc-ō, ī-s for †eis, from eō, īre; fātur from fārī.
- c. With reduplication: as, fur-fur, mar-mor, mur-mur. So in verbs: as, gi-gnō (root gen), si-stō (root sta).

DERIVED STEMS AND SUFFIXES

- 232. Derived Stems are formed from roots or from other stems by means of suffixes. These are:—
- 1. Primary: added to the root, or (in later times by analogy) to verbstems.
 - 2. Secondary: added to a noun-stem or an adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 228. 2), but a few are of doubtful origin.

Note 1.— The distinction between primary and secondary suffixes, not being original (see § 227), is continually lost sight of in the development of a language. Suffixes once primary are used as secondary, and those once secondary are used as primary. Thus in hosticus (hosti + cus) the suffix -cus, originally ko- (see § 234. II. 12) primary, as in paucus, has become secondary, and is thus regularly used to form derivatives; but in pudicus, apricus, it is treated as primary again, because these words were really or apparently connected with verbs. So in English -able was borrowed as a primary suffix (tolerable, eatable), but also makes forms like clubbable, salable; -some is properly a secondary suffix, as in toilsome, lonesome, but makes also such words as meddle-some, venturesome.

NOTE 2.—It is the stem of the word, not the nominative, that is formed by the derivative suffix. For convenience, however, the nominative will usually be given.

Primary Suffixes

- 233. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary Suffixes, are few. For —
- 1. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective lone-ly-some-ish, meaning nothing more than lone, lonely, or lonesome.
- 2. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation. Thus, —

¹ The difference in vowel-quantity in the same root (as $D\tilde{U}C$) depends on inherited variations (see § 17. a).

A word like mēns, mentis, by the suffix on- (nom. -o), gave mentio, and this, being divided into men + tio, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in -tio: as, lēgā-tio, embassy.

A word like auditor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like auditor-ius, of which the neuter (auditorium) is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence torio- (nom. -torium), n., becomes a regular noun-suffix (§ 250. a).

So in English such a word as suffocation gives a suffix -ation, and with this is made starvation, though there is no such word as starvate.

234. Examples of primary stem-suffixes are: —

I. Vowel suffixes:—

- 1. o- (m., n.), ā- (f.), found in nouns and adjectives of the first two declensions: as, sonus, lūdus, vagus, toga (root TEG).
- 2. i-, as in ovis, avis; in Latin frequently changed, as in rūpēs, or lost, as in scobs (scobis, root scab).
- 3. u-, disguised in most adjectives by an additional i, as in suā-vis (for †suād-vis, instead of †suā-dus, cf. $\dot{\eta}\delta\dot{\nu}s$), ten-uis (root ten in tendō), and remaining alone only in nouns of the fourth declension, as acus (root AK, sharp, in ācer, aciēs, $\dot{\omega}\kappa\dot{\nu}s$), pecū, genū.

II. Suffixes with a consonant:—

- 1. to-(M., N.), tā-(F.), in the regular perfect passive participle, as tēctus, tēctum; sometimes with an active sense, as in pōtus, prānsus; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as pūtus (cf. pūrus), altus (alō).
- 2. ti- in abstracts and rarely in nouns of agency, as messis, vestis, pars, mēns. But in many the i is lost.
- 3. tu- in abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as āctus, lūctus.
- 4. no-(m., n.), nā-(r.), forming perfect participles in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives of like participial meaning, which often become nouns, as māgnus, plēnus, rēgnum.
 - 5. ni-, in nouns of agency and adjectives, as īgnis, sēgnis.
 - 6. nu-, rare, as in manus, pīnus, cornū.
 - 7. mo- (mā-), with various meanings, as in animus, almus, firmus, forma.
- 8. vo- (vā-) (commonly uo-, uā-), with an active or passive meaning, as in equus (equos), arvum, conspicuus, exiguus, vacīvus (vacuus).
- 9. ro- (rā-), as in ager (stem ag-ro-), integer (cf. intāctus), sacer, plērī-que (cf. plēnus, plētus).
 - 10. lo- (lā-), as in caelum (for †caed-lum), chisel, exemplum, sella (for †sedla).
- 11. yo- (yā-), forming gerundives in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as eximius, audācia, Florentia, perniciēs.
- 12. ko- (kā-), sometimes primary, as in paucī (cf. $\pi a \hat{v} \rho o s$), locus (for stlocus). In many cases the vowel of this termination is lost, leaving a consonant stem : as, apex, cortex, loquāx.

- 13. en- (on-, ēn-, ōn-), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as, aspergō, compāgō (-Inis), gero (-onis).
- 14. men-, expressing means, often passing into the action itself: as, agmen, flümen, fulmen.
- 15. ter-(tor-, ter-, tor-, tr-), forming nouns of agency: as, pater (i.e. protector), frater (i.e. supporter), orator.
 - 16. tro-, forming nouns of means: as, claustrum (CLAUD), mülctrum (MULG).
- 17. es- (os-), forming names of actions, passing into concretes: as, genus (generis), tempus (see § 15.4). The infinitive in -ere (as in reg-ere) is a locative of this stem (-er-e for †-es-i).
- 18. nt- (ont-, ent-), forming present active participles: as, legens, with some adjectives from roots unknown: as, frequens, recens.

The above, with some suffixes given below, belong to the Indo-European parent speech, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the Latin.

Significant Endings

235. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: (1) Nouns of Agency; (2) Abstract Nouns (including Names of Actions); (3) Adjectives (active or passive).

Note. — There is really no difference in etymology between an adjective and a noun, except that some formations are habitually used as adjectives and others as novns (§ 20. b. n. 2).

DERIVATION OF NOUNS

Nouns of Agency

- 236. Nouns of Agency properly denote the agent or doer of an But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives.
- a. Nouns denoting the agent or doer of an action are formed from roots or verb-stems by means of the suffixes —

-tor (-sor), M.; -trīx, F.

can-tor, can-trix, singer; vic-tor, vic-trīx, conqueror (victorious); vinc-ere (VIC), to conquer. ton-sor (for †tond-tor), tons-trix (for †tond-trix), hair-cutter; petī-tor, candidate;

can-ere (root can), to sing.

tond-ēre (TOND as root), to shear. pet-ĕre (PET; peti- as stem), to seek. By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems, but these may be stems of lost verbs: as, viā-tor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. the verb inviō).

Note 1.— The termination -tor (-sor) has the same phonetic change as the supine ending -tum (-sum), and is added to the same form of root or verb-stem as that ending. The stem-ending is tor- (§ 234. II. 15), which is shortened in the nominative.

Note 2.— The feminine form is always-trix. Masculines in -sor lack the feminine, except expulsor (expultrix) and tonsor (tonstrix).

b. t-, m. or f., added to verb-stems makes nouns in -es (-itis, -etis; stem it-, et-) descriptive of a character:—

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prae-stes, -stitis, (verb-stem from root sta, stare, stand), guardian. teges, -etis (verb-stem tege-, cf. tegō, cover), a coverer, a mat. pedes, -itis (pēs, ped-is, foot, and 1, root of ire, go), foot-soldier.
```

c. -ō (genitive -ōnis, stem ōn-), M., added to verb-stems indicates a person employed in some specific art or trade:—

```
com-bibō (BIB as root in bibō, bibere, drink), a pot-companion. gerō, -ōnis (GES in gerō, gerere, carry), a carrier.
```

Note. — This termination is also used to form many nouns descriptive of personal characteristics (cf. § 255).

Names of Actions and Abstract Nouns

237. Names of Actions are confused, through their terminations, with real abstract nouns (names of qualities), and with concrete nouns denoting means and instrument.

They are also used to express the concrete result of an action (as often in English).

Thus legio is literally the act of collecting, but comes to mean legion (the body of soldiers collected); cf. levy in English.

- 238. Abstract Nouns and Names of Actions are formed from roots and verb-stems by means of the endings
 - a. Added to roots or forms conceived as roots —

```
Nom. -or, M.
                                    -ēs, F.
                                                      -us, N.
     GEN. -oris
                                    -is
                                                      -eris or -oris
                                                      er- (earlier %-s-)
     STEM or- (earlier os-)
                                    i-
tim-or, fear;
                                       timere, to fear.
am-or, love;
                                       amāre, to love.
sēd-ēs, seat;
                                       sedēre, to sit.
caed-ēs, slaughter;
                                       caedere, to kill.
                                      GEN, to be born (root of gigno, bear).
genus, birth, race;
```

¹ So conceived, but perhaps this termination was originally added to noun-stems.

Note. — Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as facinus from a supposed root facin.

b. Apparently added to roots or verb-stems —

```
Nom.
                       -tiō (-siō), F.
         -iō, F.
                                                  -tūra (-sūra), F.
                                                                         -tus, M.
                       -tionis (-sionis)
GEN.
        -iōnis
                                                  -tūrae (-sūrae)
                                                                        -tūs (-sūs)
STEM
                       tion- (sion-)
         iōn-
                                                  tūrā- (sūrā-)
                                                                        tu- (su-)
                                              legere, to collect.
    leg-iō, a collecting (levy), a legion;
    reg-iō, a direction, a region;
                                              regere, to direct.
    vocā-tiō, a calling;
                                              vocāre, to call.
    moli-tio, a toiling;
                                              möliri, to toil.
    scrip-tūra, a writing;
                                              scribere, to write.
                                              sentire, to feel.
    sēn-sus (for †sent-tus), feeling;
```

NOTE 1.—-tiō, -tūra, -tus are added to roots or verb-stems precisely as -tor, with the same phonetic change (cf. § 236. a. n. 1). Hence they are conveniently associated with the supine stem (see § 178). They sometimes form nouns when there is no corresponding verb in use: as, senātus, senate (cf. senex); mentiō, mention (cf. mēns); fētūra, off-spring (cf. fētus); litterātūra, literature (cf. litterae); consulātus, consulship (cf. consul).

NOTE 2.—Of these endings, -tus was originally primary (cf. § 234. II. 3.); -iō is a compound formed by adding ōn- to a stem ending in a vowel (originally i): as, diciō (cf. -dicus and dicis); -tiō is a compound formed by adding ōn- to stems in ti-: as, gradātiō (cf. gradātim); -tūra is formed by adding -ra, feminine of -rus, to stems in tu-: as, nātūra from nātus; statūra from status (cf. figūra, of like meaning, from a simple u-stem, †figu-s; and mātūrus, Mātūta).

239. Nouns denoting acts, or means and results of acts, are formed from roots or verb-stems by the use of the suffixes —

```
-men, N.; -mentum, N.; -monium, N.; -monia, F.

ag-men, line of march, band;
regi-men, rule;
regi-mentum, rule;

certā-men, contest, battle;

so colu-men, pillar; mo-men, movement; no-men, name; flu-men, stream.
testi-monium, testimony;
queri-monia, complaint;

queri, to complain.
```

-monium and -monia are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, sancti-monia, sanctity (sanctus, holy); matri-monium, marriage (mater, mother).

Note. — Of these endings, -men is primary (cf. § 234. II. 14); -mentum is a compound of men- and to-, and appears for the most part later in the language than -men: as, momen, movement (Lucr.); momentum (later). So elementum is a development from L-M-N-a, l-m-n's (letters of the alphabet), changed to elementa along with other nouns in -men. -monium and -monia were originally compound secondary suffixes formed from mon- (a by-form of men-), which was early associated with mo-. Thus almus

(stem almo-), fostering; Almon, a river near Rome; alimonia, support. But the last was formed directly from alo when -monia had become established as a supposed primary suffix.

240. Nouns denoting means or instrument are formed from roots and verb-stems (rarely from noun-stems) by means of the neuter suffixes—

-bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum

```
pā-bulum, fodder;
sta-bulum, stall;
vehi-culum, wagon;
candēlā-brum, candlestick;
sepul-crum, tomb;
claus-trum (†claud-trum), bar;
arā-trum, plough;

pāscere, to feed.
stāre, to stand.
vehere, to carry.
candēla, candle (a secondary formation).
sepelīre, to bury.
claudere, to shut.
arāre, to plough.
```

Note. — -trum (stem tro-) was an old formation from tor- (§ 234. II. 15), with the stem suffix o-, and -clum (stem clo- for tlo-) appears to be related; -culum is the same as -clum; -bulum contains lo- (§ 234. II. 9, 10) and -brum is closely related.

a. A few masculines and feminines of the same formation occur as nouns and adjectives:—

```
fā-bula, tale;

rīdi-culus, laughable;

fa-ber, smith;

late-bra, hiding-place;

tere-bra, auger;

mulc-tra, milk-pail;

fārī, to speak.

rīdēre, to laugh.

facere, to make.

latēre, to hide.

terere, to bore.

mulgēre, to milk.
```

241. Abstract Nouns, mostly from adjective-stems, rarely from noun-stems, are formed by means of the secondary feminine suffixes—

```
-ia (-iēs), -tia (-tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūdō
audāc-ia, boldness; audāx, bold.
pauper-iēs, poverty; pauper, poor.
trīsti-tia, sadness; trīstis, sad.
sēgni-tiēs, laziness; sēgnis, lazy.
boni-tās, goodness; bonus, good.
senec-tūs, age; senex, old.
māgni-tūdō, greatness; māgnus, great.
```

- 1. In stems ending in o- or ā- the stem-vowel is lost before -ia (as superb-ia) and appears as i before -tās, -tūs, -tia (as in boni-tās, above).
- 2. Consonant stems often insert i before -tās: as, loquāx (stem loquāc-), loquāci-tās; but hones-tās, mâies-tās (as if from old adjectives in -es), über-tās, volup-tās. o after i is changed to e: as, pius (stem pio-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās.

a. In like manner -do and -go (F.) form abstract nouns, but are associated with verbs and apparently added to verb-stems:—

cupī-dō, desire, from cupere, to desire (as if from stem cupī-).
dulcē-dō, sweetness (cf. dulcis, sweet), as if from a stem dulcē-, cf. dulcē-scō.
lumbā-gō, lumbago (cf. lumbus, loin), as if from †lumbō, -āre.

Note.—Of these, -ia is inherited as secondary (cf. § 234. II. 11). -tia is formed by adding -ia to stems with a t-suffix: as, mīlitia, from mīles (stem mīlit-); molestia from molestus; clēmentia from clēmēns; whence by analogy, mali-tia, avāri-tia. -tās is inherited, but its component parts, tā- + ti-, are found as suffixes in the same sense: as, senecta from senex; sēmen-tis from sēmen. -tūs is tū- + ti-, cf. servitū-dō. -dō and -gō appear only with long vowels, as from verb-stems, by a false analogy; but -dō is do- +ōn-: as, cupidus, cupīdō; gravidus, gravēdō (cf. gravē-scō); albidus, albēdō (cf. albēscō); formidus, hoi, formīdō (cf. formīdulōsus), (hot flash?) fear; -gō is possibly co- +ōn-; cf. vorāx, vorāgō, but cf. Cethēgas. -tūdō is compounded of -dō with tu-stems, which acquire a long vowel from association with verb-stems in u- (cf. volūmen, from volvō): as, cōnsuētū-dō, valētū-dō, habitū-dō, sollicitū-dō; whence servitūdō (cf. servitūs, -tūtis).

b. Neuter Abstracts, which easily pass into concretes denoting offices and groups, are formed from noun-stems and perhaps from verb-stems by means of the suffixes—

-ium, -tium

hospit-ium, hospitality, an inn; 1
collēg-ium, colleagueship, a college;
auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen;
gaud-ium, joy;
effug-ium, escape;
benefic-ium, a kindness;
dēsīder-ium, longing;

adverb-ium, adverb; interlün-ium, time of new moon; rēgifug-ium, flight of the kings; servi-tium, slavery, the slave class; hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest.
collēga, a colleague.
auspex (gen. auspic-is), a soothsayer.
gaudēre, to rejoice.
effugere, to escape.
benefacere, to benefit; cf. beneficus.
dēsīderāre, to miss, from †dē-sīdēs, out
of place, of missing soldiers.
ad verbum, [added] to a verb.
inter lūnās, between moons.
rēgis fuga, flight of a king.
servus, a slave.

Vowel stems lose their vowel before -ium: as, colleg-ium, from collega.

Note. — -ium is the neuter of the adjective suffix -ius. It is an inherited primary suffix, but is used with great freedom as secondary. -tium is formed like -tia, by adding -ium to stems with t: as, exit-ium, equit-ium (cf. exitus, equites); so, by analogy, calvitium, servitium (from calvus, servus).

c. Less commonly, abstract nouns (which usually become concrete) are formed from noun-stems (confused with verb-stems) by means of the suffixes—

¹ The abstract meaning is put first.

-nia, F.; -nium, -lium, -cinium, N.

pecū-nia, money (chattels); contici-nium, the hush of night; auxi-lium, help; lātro-cinium, robbery;

pecü, cattle. conticescere, to become still. augëre, to increase. latro, robber (cf. latrocinor, rob, implying an adjective †latrocinus).

For Diminutives and Patronymics, see §§ 243, 244.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES

242. Derivative Adjectives, which often become nouns, are either Nominal (from nouns or adjectives) or Verbal (as from roots or verb-stems).

Nominal Adjectives

243. Diminutive Adjectives are usually confined to one gender, that of the primitive, and are used as Diminutive Nouns.

They are formed by means of the suffixes —

-ulus (-a, -um), -olus (after a vowel), -culus, -ellus, -illus

rīv-ulus, a streamlet; gladi-olus, a small sword; fili-olus, a little son; fili-ola, a little daughter; ātri-olum, a little hall; homun-culus, a dwarf; auri-cula, a little ear; mūnus-culum, a little gift; codic-illi, writing-tablets; mis-ellus, rather wretched; lib-ellus, a little book; aure-olus (-a, -um), golden; parv-olus (later parv-ulus), very small; parvus (-a, -um), little. mâius-culus, somewhat larger;

rīvus, a brook. gladius, a sword. filius, a son. filia, a daughter. ātrium, a hall. homō, a man. auris, an ear. mūnus, N., a gift. codex, a block. miser, wretched. liber, a book. aureus (-a, -um), golden. mâior (old mâiōs), greater.

Note 1. — These diminutive endings are all formed by adding -lus to various stems. The formation is the same as that of -ulus in § 251. But these words became settled as diminutives, and retained their connection with nouns. So in English the diminutives whitish, reddish, are of the same formation as bookish and snappish. -culus comes from -lus added to adjectives in -cus formed from stems in n- and s-: as, iuven-cus, Aurun-cus (cf. Aurunculeius), pris-cus, whence the cu becomes a part of the termination, and the whole ending (-culus) is used elsewhere, but mostly with n- and sstems, in accordance with its origin.

Note 2. — Diminutives are often used to express affection, pity, or contempt: as, deliciolae, little pet; muliercula, a poor (weak) woman; Graeculus, a miserable Greek.

- a. -ciō, added to stems in n-, has the same diminutive force, but is used with masculines only: as, homun-ciō, a dwarf (from homō, a man).
- 244. Patronymics, indicating descent or relationship, are formed by adding to proper names the suffixes—

-adēs, -idēs, -Idēs, -eus, M.; -ās, -is, -ēis, F.

These words, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin:—

Atlas: Atlanti-ades, Mercury; Atlant-ides (Gr. plur.), the Pleiads.

Scīpio: Scīpi-ades, son of Scipio.

Tyndareus: Tyndar-ides, Castor or Pollux, son of Tyndarus; Tyndar-is,

Helen, daughter of Tyndarus.

Anchīsēs: Anchīsi-adēs, Æneas, son of Anchises.

Thēseus: Thēs-īdēs, son of Theseus.

Tydeus: Tyd-ides, Diomedes, son of Tydeus.

Oileus: Aiax Oil-eus, son of Oileus.

Cisseus: Cissē-is, Hecuba, daughter of Cisseus.

Thaumas: Thaumant-ias, Iris, daughter of Thaumas.

Hesperus: Hesper-ides (from Hesper-is, -idis), plur., the daughters of Hesperus, the Hesperides.

245. Adjectives meaning full of, prone to, are formed from nounstems with the suffixes —

-ōsus, -lēns, -lentus

fluctu-õsus, billowy;
form-õsus, beautiful;
pericul-õsus, dangerous;
pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, pestilent;
vīno-lentus, vīn-õsus, given to drink;
fluctus, a billow.
forma, beauty.
periculum, danger.
pestis, pesti.
vinum, wine.

246. Adjectives meaning provided with are formed from nouns by means of the regular participial endings —

-tus, -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus

fūnes-tus, deadly;
hones-tus, honorable;
funus (st. fūner-, older fūn*/os-), death.
hones-tus, honorable;
faus-tus (for †faves-tus), favorable;
barb-ātus, bearded;
turr-ītus, turreted;
corn-ūtus, horned;
fūnus (st. fūner-, older fūn*/os-), death.
honor, honor.
favor, favor.
turris, a beard.
turris, a tower.
cornū, a horn.

Note. — -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, imply reference to an imaginary verb-stem; -tus is added directly to nouns without any such reference.

silvā-ticus, sylvan;

247. Adjectives of various meanings, but signifying in general made of or belonging to, are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes—

```
-eus, -ius, -āceus, -īcius, -āneus (-neus), -ticus
aur-eus, golden;
                                          aurum, gold.
                                          pater, a father.
patr-ius, paternal;
uxor-ius, uxorious;
                                          uxor, a wife.
ros-aceus, of roses;
                                          rosa, a rose.
later-icius, of brick;
                                          later, a brick.
praesent-aneus, operating instantly;
                                          praesēns, present.
extr-āneus, external;
                                          extră, without.
subterr-aneus, subterranean;
                                          sub terrā, underground.
salig-neus, of willow;
                                          salix, willow.
volā-ticus, winged (volātus, a flight);
                                          volare, to fly.
domes-ticus, of the house, domestic;
                                          domus, a house.
```

Note. —-ius is originally primitive (§ 234. II. 11); -eus corresponds to Greek -elos, -eos, and has lost a y-sound (cf. yo-, § 234. II. 11); -icius and -icius are formed by adding -ius and -eus to stems in i-c-, i-c- (suffix ko-, § 234. II. 12); -neus is no- + -eus (§ 234. II. 4); -ineus is formed by adding -neus to i-stems; -ticus is a formation with -cus (cf. hosti-cus with silvi-ticus), and has been affected by the analogy of participial stems in to- (nominative -tus).

silva, a wood.

248. Adjectives denoting pertaining to are formed from nounstems with the suffixes —

-ālis, -āris, -ēlis, -īlis, -ūlis

```
nātūr-ālis, natural;
popul-āris, fellow-countryman;
patru-ēlis, cousin;
host-īlis, hostile;
cur-ūlis, curule;
nātūra, nature.
populus, a people.
patruus, uncle.
hostis, an enemy.
currus, a chariot.
```

Note. — The suffixes arise from adding-lis (stem li-) to various vowel stems. The long vowels are due partly to confusion between stem and suffix (cf. vītā-lis, from vītā-, with rēg-ālis), partly to confusion with verb-stems: cf. Aprīlis (aperīre), edūlis (edere), with senīlis (senex). -ris is an inherited suffix, but in most of these formations -āris arises by differentiation for -ālis in words containing an 1 (as mīlit-āris).

249. Adjectives with the sense of belonging to are formed by means of the suffixes —

```
-ānus, -ēnus, -īnus; -ās, -ēnsis; -cus, -acus (-ācus), -icus; -eus, -êius, -icius
```

1. So from common nouns:—

mont-ānus, of the mountains;

veter-ānus, veteran;

antelūc-ānus, before daylight;

mons (stem monti-), mountain.

vetus (stem veter-), old.

antelūcem, before light.

```
terr-ēnus, earthly;
                                               terra, earth.
ser-ēnus, calm (of evening stillness);
                                               sērus, late.
coll-īnus, of a hill;
                                               collis, hill.
dīv-inus, divine;
                                               dīvus, god.
libert-inus, of the class of freedmen;
                                               libertus, one's freedman.
cûi-ās, of what country?
                                               quis, who?
infim-as, of the lowest rank;
                                               infimus, lowest.
for-ensis, of a market-place, or the Forum; forum, a market-place.
civi-cus, civic, of a citizen;
                                               civis, a citizen.
fullon-icus, of a fuller;
                                               fullo, a fuller.
mer-ācus, pure;
                                               merum, pure wine.
fēmin-eus, of a woman, feminine;
                                               fēmina, a woman.
lact-eus, milky;
                                               lac, milk (stem lacti-).
plēb-ēius, of the commons, plebeian;
                                               plēbēs, the commons.
patr-icius, patrician;
                                               pater, father.
```

2. But especially from proper nouns to denote belonging to or coming from:

```
Rom-ānus, Roman;
                                             Roma, Rome.
Sull-ānī, Sulla's veterans;
                                              Sulla.
Cyzic-ēnī, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus;
                                              Cyzicus.
Ligur-īnus, of Liguria;
                                             Liguria.
Arpin-ās, of Arpinum;
                                              Arpīnum.
Sicili-ēnsis, Sicilian;
                                              Sicilia, Sicily.
Ili-acus, Trojan (a Greek form);
                                             Ilium, Troy.
Platon-icus, Platonic;
                                             Plato.
Aquil-êius, a Roman name;
                                             Aquila.
Aquil-êia, a town in Italy; )
```

a. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns:—

```
Silv-ānus, m., a god of the woods;
                                              silva, a wood.
                                              membrum, limb.
membr-āna, F., skin;
Aemili-ānus, M., name of Scipio Africanus; Aemilia (gēns).
lani-ēna, f., a butcher's stall;
                                              lanius, butcher.
Aufidi-ēnus, M., a Roman name;
                                              †Aufidius (Aufidus).
inquil-inus, m., a lodger;
                                              incola, an inhabitant.
Caec-ina, used as m., a Roman name;
                                              caecus, blind.
ru-īna, F., a fall;
                                              ruō, fall (no noun existing).
doctr-ina, F., learning;
                                              doctor, teacher.
```

Note. — Of these terminations, -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus are compounded from -nus added to a stem-vowel: as, arca, arcānus; collis, collīnus. The long vowels come from a confusion with verb-stems (as in plē-nus, fīnī-tus, tribū-tus), and from the noun-stem in ā-: as, arcānus. A few nouns occur of similar formation, as if from verb-stems in ō- and ū-: as, colōnus (colō, cf. incola), patrōnus (cf. patrō, -āre), tribūnus (cf. tribuō, tribus), Portūnus (cf. portus), Vacūna (cf. vacō, vacuus).

250. Other adjectives meaning in a general way belonging to (especially of places and times) are formed with the suffixes—

-ter (-tris), -ester (-estris), -timus, -nus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus)

palūs, a marsh. palüs-ter, of the marshes; pedes-ter, of the foot-soldiers; pedes, a footman. sex mēnsēs, six months. sēmēs-tris, lasting six months; silv-ester, silv-estris, woody; silva, a wood. fini-timus, neighboring, on the borders; tinis, an end. mari-timus, of the sea; mare, sea. vēr, spring. vēr-nus, vernal; hodi-ernus, of to-day; hodie, to-day. di-urnus, daily; diēs, day. hes-ternus, of yesterday; herī (old hesī), yesterday. diū-turnus, lasting; diū, long (in time).

Note. — Of these, -ester is formed by adding tri- (cf. tro-, § 234. II. 16) to stems in t- or d-. Thus †pedet-tri- becomes pedestri-, and others follow the analogy. -nus is an inherited suffix (§ 234. II. 4). -ernus and -urnus are formed by adding -nus to s-stems: as, diur-nus (for †dius-nus), and hence, by analogy, hodiernus (hodië). By an extension of the same principle were formed the suffixes -ternus and -turnus from words like paternus and nocturnus.

a. Adjectives meaning belonging to are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes—

-ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius)

ōrdin-ārius, regular;ōrdō, rank, order.argent-ārius, of silver or money;argentum, silver.extr-ārius, stranger;extrā, outside.meri-tōrius, profitable;meritus, earned.dēvor-sōrius, of an inn (cf. § 254. 5);dēvorsus, turned aside.

Note 1. — Here -ius (§ 234. II. 11) is added to shorter forms in -āris and -or: as, pecū-liārius (from pecūliāris), bellātōrius (from bellātor).

Note 2. — These adjectives are often fixed as nouns (see § 254).

Verbal Adjectives

251. Adjectives expressing the action of the verb as a quality or tendency are formed from real or apparent verb-stems with the suffixes—

```
-āx, -idus, -ulus, -vus (-uus, -īvus, -tīvus)
```

-ax denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tīvus is oftener passive.

pügn-āx, pugnacious;

aud-āx, bold;

cup-idus, eager;

bib-ulus, thirsty (as dry earth etc.);

proter-vus, violent, wanton;

pügnāre, to fight.

audēre, to dare.

cupere, to desire.

bibere, to drink.

proterere, to trample.

>

noc-uus (noc-īvus), hurtful, injurious; nocēre, to do harm.
recid-īvus, restored; recidere, to fall back.
cap-tīvus, captive; m., a prisoner of war; capere, to take.

Note. — Of these, -āx is a reduction of -ācus (stem-vowel ā-+-cus), become independent and used with verb-stems. Similar forms in -ēx, -ōx, -īx, and -ūx are found or employed in derivatives: as, imbrex, m., a rain-tile (from imber); senex, old (from seni-s); ferōx, fierce (from ferus); atrōx, savage (from āter, black); celōx, f., a yacht (cf. cellō); fēlīx, happy, originally fertile (cf. fēlō, suck); fīdūcia, f., confidence (as from †fīdūx); cf. also victrīx (from victor). So mandūcus, chewing (from mandō).

-idus is no doubt denominative, as in herbidus, grassy (from herba, herb); tumidus, swollen (cf. tumu-lus, hill; tumul-tus, uproar); callidus, tough, cunning (cf. callum, tough flesh); mūcidus, slimy (cf. mūcus, slime); tābidus, wasting (cf. tābēs, wasting disease). But later it was used to form adjectives directly from verb-stems.

-ulus is the same suffix as in diminutives, but attached to verb-stems. Cf. aemulus, rivalling (cf. imitor and imāgō); sēdulus, sitting by, attentive (cf. domi-seda, home-staying, and sēdō, set, settle, hence calm); pendulus, hanging (cf. pondō, ablative, in weight; perpendiculum, a plummet; appendix, an addition); strāgulus, covering (cf. strāgēs); legulus, a picker (cf. sacri-legus, a picker up of things sacred).

-vus seems originally primary (cf. § 234. II. 8), but -īvus and -tīvus have become secondary and are used with nouns: as, aestīvus, of summer (from aestus, heat); tempestīvus, timely (from tempus); cf. domes-ticus (from domus).

252. Adjectives expressing passive qualities, but occasionally active, are formed by means of the suffixes—

-ilis, -bilis, -ius, -tilis (-silis)

frag-ilis, frail;

nō-bilis, well known, famous;

exim-ius, choice, rare (cf. ē-greg-ius);

ag-ilis, active;

hab-ilis, handy;

al-tilis, fattened (see note);

frangere (frag), to break.

nōscere (gno), to know.

eximere, to take out, select.

agere, to drive.

habēre, to hold.

alere, to nourish.

Note. — Of these, -ius is primary, but is also used as secondary (cf. § 241. b. N.). -ilis is both primary (as in agilis, fragilis) and secondary (as in similis, like, cf. $\delta\mu$ os, $\delta\mu$ alos, English same); -bilis is in some way related to -bulum and -brum (§ 240. N.); in -tilis and -silis, -lis is added to to- (so-), stem of the perfect participle: as, fossilis, dug up (from fossus, dug); volātilis, winged (from volātus, flight).

253. Verbal Adjectives that are Participial in meaning are formed with the suffixes —

-ndus, -bundus, -cundus

a. -ndus (the same as the gerundive ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives:—

secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable; sequi, to follow. rotu-ndus, round (whirling); rotare, to whirl.

1 Cf. volvendīs mēnsibus (Aen. i. 269), in the revolving months; cf. oriundī ab Sabīnīs (Liv. i. 17), sprung from the Sabines, where oriundī = ortī.

b. -bundus, -cundus, denote a continuance of the act or quality expressed by the verb:—

vītā-bundus, avoiding; treme-bundus, trembling; mori-bundus, dying, at the point of death; fā-cundus, eloquent; fē-cundus, fruitful; īrā-cundus, irascible;

vitare, to shun. tremere, to tremble. moriri, to die. fari, to speak. root fe, nourish. cf. irasci, to be angry.

Note. — These must have been originally nominal: as in the series, rubus, red bush; rubidus (but no †rubicus), ruddy; Rubicon, Red River (cf. Minio, a river of Etruria; Minius, a river of Lusitania); rubicundus (as in averruncus, homun-culus). So turba, commotion; turbo, a top; turbidus, roily, etc. Cf. apexabo, longabo, gravēdo, dulcēdo.

c. Here belong also the participial suffixes -minus, -mnus (cf. Greek - $\mu\epsilon\nu$ os), from which are formed a few nouns in which the participial force is still discernible: — 1

fē-mina, woman (the nourisher); alu-mnus, a foster-child, nursling;

root FE, nourish. alere, to nourish.

Nouns with Adjective Suffixes

- 254. Many fixed forms of the Nominal Adjective suffixes mentioned in the preceding sections, make Nouns more or less regularly used in particular senses:—
 - -ārius, person employed about anything: —
 argent-ārius, M., silversmith, broker, from argentum, silver.
 Corinthi-ārius, M., worker in Corinthian bronze (sarcastic nickname of Augustus), from (aes) Corinthium, Corinthian bronze.
 centōn-ārius, M., ragman, from centō, patchwork.
 - 2. -āria, thing connected with something:—
 argent-āria, f., bank, from argentum, silver.
 arēn-āriae, f. plural, sandpits, from arēna, sand.
 Asin-āria, f., name of a play, from asinus, ass.²
 - 3. -ārium, place of a thing (with a few of more general meaning):—
 aer-ārium, n., treasury, from aes, copper.
 tepid-ārium, n., warm bath, from tepidus, warm.
 sūd-ārium, n., a towel, cf. sūdō, -āre, sweat.
 sal-ārium, n., salt money, salary, from sāl, salt.
 calend-ārium, n., a note-book, from calendae, calends.

¹ Cf. § 163. footnote 1.

² Probably an adjective with fābula, play, understood.

4. -tōria (-sōria): —

Agitā-tōria, f., a play of Plautus, The Carter, from agitātor. vor-sōria, f., a tack (nautical), from vorsus, a turn.

5. -tōrium (-sōrium), place of action (with a few of more general meaning): dēvor-sōrium, N., an inn, as from dēvortō, turn aside.

audi-torium, N., a lecture-room, as from audio, hear.

ten-tōrium, N., a tent, as from tendō, stretch.

tēc-tōrium, n., plaster, as from tegō, tēctus, cover.

por-torium, N., toll, cf. porto, carry, and portus, harbor.

6. -ile, animal-stall: —

bov-īle, n., cattle-stall, from bos, bovis, ox, cow. ov-īle, n., sheepfold, from ovis, stem ovi-, sheep.

7. -al for -āle, thing connected with the primitive: -

capit-al, N., headdress, capital crime, from caput, head.

penetr-āle (especially in plural), N., inner apartment, cf. penetrō, enter.

Sāturn-ālia, N. plural (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Saturn, from Sāturnus.

8. -ētum, N. (cf. -ātus, -ūtus, see § 246. N.), -tum, place of a thing, especially with names of trees and plants to designate where these grow:—

querc-ētum, n., oak grove, from quercus, oak.

olīv-ētum, n., olive grove, from olīva, an olive tree.

salic-tum, N., a willow thicket, from salix, a willow tree.

Argil-ētum, N., The Clay Pit, from argilla, clay.

9. -cus (sometimes with inserted i, -icus), -īcus, in any one of the genders, with various meanings:—

vili-cus, m., a steward, vili-ca, r., a stewardess, from villa, farm-house.

fabr-ica, r., a workshop, from faber, workman.

am-īcus, M., am-īca, F., friend, cf. amāre, to love.

būbul-cus, m., ox-tender, from būb-ulus, diminutive, cf. bos, ox

cant-icum, N., song, from cantus, act of singing.

rubr-īca, F., red paint, from ruber, red.

10. -eus, -ea, -eum, with various meanings: -

alv-eus, M., a trough, from alvus, the belly.

capr-ea, r., a wild she-goat, from caper, he-goat.

flamm-eum, N., a bridal veil, from flamma, flame, from its color.

11. -ter (stem tri-), -aster, -ester: -

eques-ter, M., knight, for tequet-ter.

sequ-ester, m., a stake-holder, from derivative of sequor, follow.

ole-aster, M., wild olive, from olea, an olive tree.

IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES

255. The suffix -5 (genitive -5nis, stem 5n-), usually added to verb-stems (see § 236. c), is sometimes used with noun-stems to form nouns denoting possessed of. These were originally adjectives expressing quality or character, and hence often appear as proper names:—

epulae, a feast; epul-ō, a feaster.
nāsus, a nose; nās-ō, with a large nose (also as a proper name).
volus (in bene-volus), wishing; vol-ōnēs (plural), volunteers.
frōns, forehead; front-ō, big-head (also as a proper name).
cūria, a curia; cūri-ō, head of a curia (also as a proper name).
restis, a rope; resti-ō, a rope-maker.

- a. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form:
 - ad-verb-ium, adverb; ad, to, and verbum, verb, but without the intervening tadverbus.
 - lāti-fund-ium, large estate; lātus, wide, fundus, estate, but without the intervening †lātifundus.
 - su-ove-taur-īlia, a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull; sūs, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin, though such formations are common in Sanskrit.

DERIVATION OF VERBS

- 256. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.
- 1. Primitive Verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parent speech.
- 2. Derivative Verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language.
 - 257. Derivative Verbs are of two main classes: —
 - 1. Denominative Verbs, formed from nouns or adjectives.
 - 2. Verbs apparently derived from the stems of other verbs.

Denominative Verbs

- 258. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun-stem and adjective-stem.
- 259. 1. Verbs of the First Conjugation are formed directly from ā-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, fuga, flight; fugāre, put to flight.

2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation are formed from ostems, changing the o- into ā-. These are more commonly transitive:—

```
stimulo, -āre, to incite, from stimulus, a goad (stem stimulo-).

aequō, -āre, to make even, from aequus, even (stem aequo-).

hībernō, -āre, to pass the winter, from hībernus, of the winter (stem hīberno-).

albō, -āre, to whiten, from albus, white (stem albo-).

piō, -āre, to expiate, from pius, pure (stem pio-).

novō, -āre, to renew, from novus, new (stem novo-).

armō, -āre, to arm, from arma, arms (stem armo-).

damnō, -āre, to injure, from damnum, injury (stem damno-).
```

3. A few verbs, generally intransitive, are formed by analogy from consonant and i- or u-stems, adding ā to the stem: — 1

```
vigilō, -āre, to watch, from vigil, awake.
exsulō, -āre, to be in exile, from exsul, an exile.
auspicor, -ārī, to take the auspices, from auspex (stem auspic-), augur.
pulverō, -āre, to turn (anything) to dust, from pulvis (stem pulver- for pulvis-),
dust.
aestuō, -āre, to surge, boil, from aestus (stem aestu-), tide, seething.
levō, -āre, to lighten, from levis (stem levi-), light.
```

260. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems; but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost:—

```
albeō, -ēre, to be white, from albus (stem albo/e-), white. cāneo, -ēre, to be hoary, from cānus (stem cāno/e-), hoary. clāreō, -ēre, to shine, from clārus, bright. claudeō, -ēre, to be lame, from claudus, lame. algeō, -ēre, to be cold, cf. algidus, cold.
```

261. Some verbs of the Third Conjugation in -uō, -uere, are formed from noun-stems in u- and have lost a consonant i: —

```
statuō (for †statu-yō), -ere, to set up, from status, position.
metuō, -ere, to fear, from metus, fear.
acuō, -ere, to sharpen, from acus, needle.
arguō, -ere, to clear up, from inherited stem †argu-, bright (cf. ἄργυρος).
```

Note. — Many verbs in u are inherited, being formed from roots in u: as, fluo, fluere, flow; so-lvo (for †sē-luo, cf. $\lambda \dot{\nu}\omega$), solvere, dissolve. Some roots have a parasitic u: as, loquor, locūtus, speak.

¹ The type of all or most of the denominative formations in §§ 259–262 was inherited, but the process went on in the development of Latin as a separate language.

262. Many i-verbs or verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from i-stems:—

mölior, -īrī, to toil, from mölēs (-is), mass. fīniō, -īre, to bound, from fīnis, end. sitiō, -īre, to thirst, from sitis, thirst. stabiliō, -īre, to establish, from stabilis, stable.

a. Some arise by confusion from other stems treated as i-stems:—
bulliō, -īre, to boil, from bulla (stem bullā-), bubble.
condiō, -īre, to preserve, from condus (stem condo-), storekeeper.
īnsāniō, -īre, to rave, from īnsānus (stem īnsāno-), mad.
gestiō, -īre, to show wild longing, from gestus (stem gestu-), gesture.

Note.—Some of this form are of doubtful origin: as, ordior, begin, cf. ordo and exordium. The formation is closely akin to that of verbs in -io of the third conjugation (p. 102).

b. Some are formed with -iō from consonant stems:—
cūstōdiō, -īre, to guard, from cūstōs (stem cūstōd-), guardian.
fulguriō, -īre, to lighten, from fulgur, lightning.

Note. — Here probably belong the so-called desideratives in -urio (see § 263. 4. N.).

Verbs from Other Verbs

263. The following four classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

NOTE. — These classes are all really denominative in their origin, but the formations had become so associated with actual verbs that new derivatives were often formed directly from verbs without the intervention of a noun-stem.

1. Inceptives or Inchoatives add -scō¹ to the present stem of verbs. They denote the *beginning* of an action and are of the Third Conjugation. Of some there is no simple verb in existence:—

calē-scō, grow warm, from caleō, be warm.
labā-scō, begin to totter, from labō, totter.
scī-scō, determine, from sciō, know.
con-cupī-scō, conceive a desire for, from cupiō, desire.
alē-scō, grow, from alō, feed.
So īrā-scor, get angry; cf. īrā-tus.
iuvenē-scō, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.
mītē-scō, grow mild; cf. mītis, mild.
vesperā-scit, it is getting late; cf. vesper, evening.

¹ For -scō in primary formation, see § 176. b. 1.

NOTE. — Inceptives properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, calesco, grow warm, calui; ārdēsco, blaze forth, ārsī; proficiscor, set out, profectus.

2. Intensives or Iteratives are formed from the Supine stem and end in-tō or -itō (rarely -sō). They denote a forcible or repeated action, but this special sense often disappears. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itō (not -ātō).

iac-tō, hurl, from iaciō, throw.

dormi-to, be sleepy, from dormio, sleep.

vol-itō, flit, from volō, fly.

vēndi-tō, try to sell, from vēndō, sell.

quas-sō, shatter, from quatiō, shake.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative.

- a. Compound suffixes -titō, -sitō, are formed with a few verbs. These are probably derived from other Iteratives; thus, cantitō may come from cantō, iterative of canō, sing.
- **b.** Another form of Intensives sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote a certain energy or eagerness of action rather than its repetition:—

cap-esso, lay hold on, from capio, take.

fac-essō, do (with energy), from faciō, do.

pet-esso, pet-issō, seek (eagerly), from petō, seek.

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth:—

arcesso, arcessere, arcessivi, arcessitum, summon.

lacesso, lacessere, lacessivi, lacessitum, provoke.

Note. — The verbs in -essō, -issō, show the same formation as levāssō, impetrāssere, iūdicāssit, etc. (§ 183. 5), but its origin is not fully explained.

3. Diminutives end in -illo, and denote a feeble or petty action: — cav-illor, jest, cf. cavilla, raillery.

cant-illo, chirp or warble, from canto, sing.

Note. — Diminutives are formed from verb-stems derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns.

4. Desideratives end in -turio (-surio), and express longing or wishing. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only two are in common use:—

par-turio, be in labor, from pario, bring forth.

ē-suriō (for †ed-turiō), be hungry, from edō, eat.

Others are used by the dramatists.

Note. — Desideratives are probably derived from some noun of agency: as, ēmpturiō, wish to buy, from ēmptor, buyer. Vīsō, go to see, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.

COMPOUND WORDS

- 264. A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.
- a. A final stem-vowel of the first member of the compound usually disappears before a vowel, and usually takes the form of i before a consonant. Only the second member receives inflection.¹
- b. Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.
 - 265. New stems are formed by Composition in three ways: —
 - 1. The second part is simply added to the first:—

su-ove-taurīlia (sūs, ovis, taurus), the sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull (cf. § 255. a).

septen-decim (septem, decem), seventeen.

2. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (Determinative Compounds):—

lāti-fundium (lātus, fundus); a large landed estate. omni-potēns (omnis, potēns), omnipotent.

3. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds):—

agri-cola (ager, field, †cola akin to colō, cultivate), a farmer. armi-ger (arma, arms, †ger akin to gerō, carry), armor-bearer. corni-cen (cornū, horn, †cen akin to canō, sing), horn-blower. carni-fex (carō, flesh, †fex akin to faciō, make), executioner.

a. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, may become adjectives, meaning possessed of the quality denoted:—

āli-pēs (āla, wing, pēs, foot), wing-footed.
māgn-animus (māgnus, great, animus, soul), great-souled.
an-ceps (amb-, at both ends, caput, head), double.

Note. — Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form of some further derivative, the proper compound not being found in Latin.

¹ The second part generally has its usual inflection; but, as this kind of composition is in fact older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicen, -cinis; lūcifer, -ferī; iūdex, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives in Latin take the form of i-stems: as, animus, exanimis; nōrma, abnōrmis (see § 73). In composition, stems regularly have their uninflected form: as, īgni-spicium, divining by fire. But in o- and ā-stems the final vowel of the stem appears as i-, as in āli-pēs (from āla, stem ālā-); and i- is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, flōri-comus, flower-crowned (from flōs, flōr-is, and coma, hair).

Syntactic Compounds

- 266. In many apparent compounds, complete words not stems have grown together in speech. These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called Syntactic Compounds. Examples are:—
- a. Compounds of facio, facto, with an actual or formerly existing nounstem confounded with a verbal stem in ē. These are causative in force: consuē-facio, habituate (cf. consuē-sco, become accustomed). cale-facio, cale-facto, to heat (cf. cale-sco, grow warm).
 - b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb:—
 bene-dīcō (bene, well, dīcō, speak), to bless.
 satis-faciō (satis, enough, faciō, do), to do enough (for).
 - c. Many apparent compounds of stems:—
 fide-iubeō (fide, surety, iubeō, command), to give surety.
 mān-suētus (manuī, to the hand, suētus, accustomed), tame.
 Mārci-por (Mārcī puer), slave of Marcus.
 Iuppiter (†Iū, old vocative, and pater), father Jove.
 anim-advertō (animum advertō), attend to, punish.
 - d. A few phrases forced into the ordinary inflections of nouns:—
 prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsule, instead of a consul).
 trium-vir, triumvir (singular from trium virōrum).
 septen-triō, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem triōnēs, the Seven Plough-Oxen).

In all these cases it is to be observed that words, not stems, are united.

- 267. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech.
- a. Prepositions are often prefixed to Verbs. In these compounds the prepositions retain their original adverbial sense:
 - ā, ab, AWAY: ā-mittere, to send away.

ad, to, towards: af-ferre (ad-fero), to bring.

ante, BEFORE: ante-ferre, to prefer; ante-cellere, to excel.

circum, AROUND: circum-munire, to fortify completely.

com-, con- (cum), TOGETHER OF FORCIBLY: con-ferre, to bring together; collocare, to set firm.

dē, down, utterly: dē-spicere, despise; dē-struere, destroy.

ē, ex, out: ef-ferre (ec-fero), to carry forth, uplift.

in (with verbs), IN, ON, AGAINST: in-ferre, to bear against.

inter, BETWEEN, TO PIECES: inter-rumpere, to interrupt.

ob, TOWARDS, TO MEET: of-ferre, to offer; ob-venire, to meet.

sub, UNDER, UP FROM UNDER: sub-struere, to build beneath; sub-ducere, to lead up. super, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: super-fluere, to overflow.

Note 1.—In such compounds, however, the prepositions sometimes have their ordinary force as prepositions, especially ad, in, circum, trans, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flumen, to cross a river (see § 388. b).

Note 2. — Short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two: as, facio, conficio, confectus; iacio, sicio, sic

b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb- (am-, an-), AROUND: amb-īre, to go about (cf. ἀμφί, about).

dis-, di-, ASUNDER, APART: dis-cedere, to depart (cf. duo, two); di-videre, to divide.

por-, FORWARD: por-tendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. porro, forth).

red-, re-, BACK, AGAIN: red-ire, to return; re-cludere, to open (from claudo, shut); re-ficere, to repair (make again).

sēd-, sē-, APART: sē-cernō, to separate; cf. sēd-itiō, a going apart, secession (eō, īre, to go).

c. Many Verbals are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond:—

per-fuga, deserter; cf. per-fugio.

trā-dux, vine-branch; cf. trā-dūcō (trāns-dūcō).

ad-vena, stranger; cf. ad-venio.

con-iux (con-iunx), spouse; cf. con-iungo.

in-dex, pointer out; cf. in-dico.

prae-ses, guardian; cf. prae-sideo.

com-bibō, boon companion; cf. com-bibō, -ĕre.

- d. An Adjective is sometimes modified by an adverbial prefix.
- 1. Of these, per- (less commonly prac-), very; sub-, somewhat; in-, not, are regular, and are very freely prefixed to adjectives:—

per-mägnus, very large.

per-paucī, very few.

sub-rūsticus, rather clownish.

sub-fuscus, darkish.

prae-longus, very long.

in-nocuus, harmless.

in-imicus, unfriendly.

In-sānus, insane.

in-finitus, boundless.

im-pūrus, impure.

Note. — Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: as, per-terred, terrify; sub-rided, smile. In ignosco, pardon, in- appears to be the negative prefix.

2. The negative in-sometimes appears in combination with an adjective that does not occur alone:—

in-ermis, unarmed (cf. arma, arms).

im-bellis, unwarlike (cf. bellum, war).

im-pūnis, without punishment (cf. poena, punishment).

in-teger, untouched, whole (cf. tango, to touch, root TAG).

in-vitus, unwilling (probably from root seen in vi-s, thou wishest).

PART SECOND—SYNTAX

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

268. The study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and dealt with language as a fully developed product. Accordingly the terms of Syntax correspond to the logical habits of thought and forms of expression that had grown up at such a period, and have a logical as well as a merely grammatical meaning. But a developed syntactical structure is not essential to the expression of thought. A form of words—like 5 puerum pulchrum! oh! beautiful bey—expresses a thought and might even be called a sentence; though it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what is usually called a sentence at all.

At a very early period of spoken language, word-forms were no doubt significant in themselves, without inflections, and constituted the whole of language,—just as to a child the name of some familiar object will stand for all he can say about it. At a somewhat later stage, such uninflected words put side by side made a rudimentary form of proposition: as a child might say fire bright; horse run. With this began the first form of logical distinction, that of Subject and Predicate; but as yet there was no distinction in form between noun and verb, and no fixed distinction in function. At a later stage forms were differentiated in function and—by various processes of composition which cannot be fully traced—Inflections were developed. These served to express person, tense, case, and other grammatical relations, and we have true Parts of Speech.

Not until language reached this last stage was there any fixed limit to the association of words, or any rule prescribing the manner in which they should be combined. But gradually, by usage, particular forms came to be limited to special functions (as nouns, verbs, adjectives), and fixed customs arose of combining words into what we now call Sentences. These customs are in part the result of general laws or modes of thought (logic), resulting from our habits of mind (General Grammar); and in part are what may be called By-Laws, established by custom in a given language (Particular Grammar), and making what is called the Syntax of that language.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the Sentence: that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally sentences were simple. But two simple sentence-forms may be used together, without the grammatical subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than could be denoted by one alone. This is parataxis (arrangement side by side). Since, however, the two sentences, independent in form, were in fact used to express parts of a complex whole and were therefore mutually dependent, the sense of unity found expression in conjunctions, which denoted the grammatical subordination of the one to the other. This is hypotaxis (arrangement under, subordination). In this way, through various stages of development, which correspond to our habitual modes of thought, there were produced various forms of complex sentences. Thus, to express the complex idea I beseech you to pardon me, the two simple sentence-forms quaeso and ignoscas were used side by side, quaeso ignoscas; then the feeling of grammatical subordination found expression in a conjunction, quaeso ut ignoscis, forming a complex sentence. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax.

THE SENTENCE

Kinds of Sentences

- 269. A Sentence is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.
- a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a Declarative .Sentence: as, canis currit, the dog runs.
- b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interrogative Sentence: as,—canisne currit? does the dog run?
- c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as,—quam celeriter currit canis! how fast the dog runs!
- d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an Imperative Sentence: as,—ī, curre per Alpīs, go, run across the Alps; currat canis, let the dog run.

Subject and Predicate

270. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.

The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of. The Predicate is that which is said of the Subject.

Thus in canis currit, the dog runs, canis is the subject, and currit the predicate.

271. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or Pronoun, or some word or group of words used as a Noun:—

equites ad Caesarem venerunt, the cavalry came to Cæsar.

hümānum est errāre, to err is human.

quaeritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil.

a. But in Latin the subject is often implied in the termination of the verb:—

sedē-mus, we sit.

curri-tis, you run.

inqui-t, says he.

272. The Predicate of a sentence may be a Verb (as in canis currit, the dog runs), or it may consist of some form of sum and a Noun or Adjective which describes or defines the subject (as in Caesar consul erat, Cæsar was consul).

Such a noun or adjective is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective, and the verb sum is called the Copula (i.e. the connective).

Thus in the example given, Caesar is the subject, consul the predicate noun, and cerat the copula (see § 283).

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

- 273. Verbs are either Transitive or Intransitive.
- 1. A Transitive Verb has or requires a direct object to complete its sense (see § 274): as, frātrem cecīdit, he slew his brother.
- 2. An Intransitive Verb admits of no direct object to complete its sense: —

cado, I fall (or am falling). sol lucet, the sun shines (or is shining).

NOTE 1.— Among transitive verbs Factitive Verbs are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which produces the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus mensam fecit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mensam percussit, he struck a table (which already existed).

NOTE 2.—A transitive verb may often be used absolutely, i.e. without any object expressed: as,—arat, he is ploughing, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding,—quid, what? agrum suum, his land.

Note 3. — Transitive and Intransitive Verbs are often called Active and Neuter Verbs respectively.

Object

274. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the Direct Object.

A person or thing indirectly affected by the action of a verb is called the Indirect Object.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 362, 366):—

pater vocat filium (direct object), the father calls his son. mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field. mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.

NOTE. — The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not a fixed distinction, for most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive (§ 388. a).

a. With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the direct object (Objective):—

hominem video, I see the man (Accusative).
homini servio, I serve the man (Dative, see § 367).
hominis misereor, I pity the man (Genitive, see § 354. a).
homine amico ütor, I treat the man as a friend (Ablative, see § 410).

b. Many verbs transitive in Latin are rendered into English by an intransitive verb with a preposition:—

petit aprum, he aims at the boar.

laudem affectat, he strives after praise.

cūrat valētūdinem, he takes care of his health.

meum cāsum doluērunt, they grieved at my misfortune.

rīdet nostram āmentiam (Quinct. 55), he laughs at our stupidity.

275. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the Nominative case:—

Active: pater filium vocat, the father calls his son.

Passive: filius a patre vocatur, the son is called by his father.

Active: lunam et stellas videmus, we see the moon and the stars.

Passive: luna et stellas videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

Modification

276. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a phrase or a clause).

The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 282), or the oblique case of a noun.

Thus in the sentence vir fortis patienter fert, a brave man endures patiently, the adjective fortis, brave, modifies the subject vir, man, and the adverb patienter, patiently, modifies the predicate fert, endures.

b. The modifying word is in some cases said to limit the word to which it belongs.

Thus in the sentence pueri patrem video, I see the boy's father, the genitive pueri limits patrem (by excluding any other father).

277. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus in the sentence vir fuit summă nobilităte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summă nobilităte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nobilis, noble (or nobilissimus, very noble), and are called an Adjective Phrase.

So in the sentence magna celeritate venit, he came with great speed, the words magna celeritate, with great speed, are used for the adverb celeriter, quickly (or celerime, very quickly), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.

Clauses and Sentences

- 278. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.
- 1. A sentence containing a single statement is called a Simple Sentence.
- 2. A sentence containing more than one statement is called a Compound Sentence, and each single statement in it is called a Clause.
- a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be Coördinate. They are usually connected by a Coördinate Conjunction (§ 223. a); but this is sometimes omitted:—

dīvide et imperā, divide and control. But, — vēnī, vīdī, vicī, I came, I saw, I conquered.

b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be Subordinate, and the clause modified is called the Main Clause.

This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction (§ 223. b) or a Relative:—

oderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.

servum misit quem secum habebat, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called Complex.

Note. — A subordinate clause may itself be modified by other subordinate clauses.

- 279. Subordinate Clauses are of various kinds.
- a. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb is called a Relative Clause:—
 - Mosa profluit ex monte Vosego, qui est in finibus Lingonum (B. G. iv. 10), the Meuse rises in the Vosges mountains, which are on the borders of the Lingones.

For Relative Pronouns (or Relative Adverbs) serving to connect independent sentences, see § 308. f.

b. A clause introduced by an Adverb of Time is called a Temporal Clause:—

cum tacent, clāmant (Cat. i. 21), while they are silent, they cry aloud. hominēs aegrī morbō gravī, cum iactantur aestū febrīque, sī aquam gelidam biberint, prīmō relevārī videntur (id. i. 31), men suffering with a severe sickness, when they are tossing with the keat of fever, if they drink cold water, seem at first to be relieved.

c. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by si, if (or some equivalent expression), is called a Conditional Clause. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a Conditional Sentence.

Thus, si aquam gelidam biberint, prīmō relevārī videntur (in b, above) is a Conditional Sentence, and sī... biberint is a Conditional Clause.

. d. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a Final Clause:—

edo ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).

mīsit lēgātōs quī dīcerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

e. A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive Clause:—1

tam longë aberam ut non vidërem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I did not see).

AGREEMENT

280. A word is said to agree with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.

The following are the general forms of agreement, sometimes called the Four Concords:—

- 1. The agreement of the Noun in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 281-284).
 - 2. The agreement of the Adjective with its Noun (§ 286).
 - 3. The agreement of the Relative with its Antecedent (§ 305).
 - 4. The agreement of the Finite Verb with its Subject (§ 316).
- a. A word sometimes takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word *implied* in that word.

This use is called Synesis, or construction according to sense).

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS

281. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 282) or a Predicate noun (§ 283).

¹ Observe that the classes defined in a-e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time temporal or conditional; and subordinate clauses may be coördinate with each other.

Apposition

- 282. A noun used to describe another, and standing in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an Appositive, and is said to be in apposition:
 - externus timor, maximum concordiae vinculum, iungēbat animos (Liv. ii. 39), fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts. [Here the appositive belongs to the subject.]
 - quattuor hic primum omen equos vidi (Aen. iii. 537), I saw here four horses, the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
 - litterās Graecās senex didici (Cat. M. 26), I learned Greek when an old man. [Here senex, though in apposition with the subject of didici, really states something further: viz., the time, condition, etc., of the act (Predicate: Apposition).]
- a. Words expressing parts may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or vice versa (Partitive Apposition):—
 - Nec P. Popilius neque Q. Metellus, clārissimī virī atque amplissimī, vim tribūnīciam sustinēre potuērunt (Clu. 95), neither Publius Popilius nor Quintus Metellus, [both of them] distinguished and honorable men, could withstand the power of the tribunes.
 - Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiones, Cneius and Publius Scipio (the Scipios).
 - b. An Adjective may be used as an appositive:
 - ea Sex. Röscium inopem recēpit (Rosc. Am. 27), she received Sextus Roscius in his poverty (needy).
- c. An appositive generally agrees with its noun in Gender and Number when it can:
 - sequuntur nātūram, optimam ducem (Lael. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.
 - omnium doctrīnārum inventrīcēs Athēnās (De Or. i. 13), Athens, discoverer of all learning.
- Note. But such agreement is often impossible: as, ōlim truncus eram fīculnus, inūtile līgnum (Hor. S. i. 8. 1), I once was a fig-tree trunk, a useless log.
- d. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 427) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in:—
 - Antiochiae, celebri quondam urbe (Arch. 4), at Antioch, once a famous city.

 Albae constiterunt, in urbe munita (Phil. iv. 6), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.

For a Genitive in apposition with a Possessive Pronoun or an Adjective, see § 302. e. For the so-called Appositional Genitive, see § 343. d.

For the construction with nomen est, see § 373. a.

Predicate Noun or Adjective

283. With sum and a few other intransitive or passive verbs, a noun or an adjective describing or defining the subject may stand in the predicate. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective.

The verb sum is especially common in this construction, and when so used is called the copula (i.e. connective).

Other verbs which take a predicate noun or adjective are the so-called copulative verbs signifying to become, to be made, to be named, to appear, and the like.

284. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after the copula sum or a copulative verb is in the same case as the Subject:—

pācis semper auctor fui (Lig. 28), I have always been an adviser of peace. quae pertinācia quibusdam, eadem aliīs constantia vidērī potest (Marc. 31), what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency.

êius mortis sedētis ultērēs (Mil. 79), you sit as avengers of his death.

habeatur vir egregius Paulus (Cat. iv. 21), let Paulus be regarded as an extraordinary man.

ego patronus exstiti (Rosc. Am. 5), I have come forward as an advocate. dicit non omnis bonos esse beatos, he says that not all good men are happy.

a. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural:—

consules creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Cæsar and Servilius are elected consuls.

b. Sum in the sense of exist makes a complete predicate without a predicate noun or adjective. It is then called the substantive verb:—

sunt viri fortës, there are (exist) brave men. [Cf. vixëre fortës ante Agamemnona (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 25), brave men lived before Agamemnon.]

For Predicate Accusative and Predicate Ablative, see §§ 392, 415. N.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

Attributive and Predicate Adjectives

- 285. Adjectives are either Attributive or Predicate.
- 1. An Attributive Adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied: as, —bonus imperator, a good commander; stellae lucidae, bright stars; verbum Graecum, a Greek word.

2. All other adjectives are called Predicate Adjectives: —

stellae lücidae erant, the stars were bright.

sit Scīpiō clārus (Cat. iv. 21), let Scipio be illustrious.

hominēs mītīs reddidit (Inv. i. 2), has rendered men mild.

tria praedia Capitoni propria traduntur (Rosc. Am. 21), three farms are handed over to Capito as his own.

consilium ceperunt plenum sceleris (id. 28), they formed a plan full of villany.

NOTE. — A predicate adjective may be used with sum or a copulative verb (§ 283); it may have the construction of a predicate accusative after a verb of naming, calling, or the like (§ 393. N.); or it may be used in apposition like a noun (§ 282. b).

Rules of Agreement

286. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*:—

vir fortis, a brave man.

illa mulier, that woman.

urbium māgnārum, of great cities.

cum ducentis militibus, with two hundred soldiers.

imperator victus est, the general was beaten.

secūtae sunt tempestātēs, storms followed.

Note. — All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

a. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but often agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive):—

Nīsus et Euryalus prīmī (Aen. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first.

Caesaris omni et grātiā et opibus fruor (Fam. i. 9. 21), I enjoy all Cæsar's favor and resources.

Note. — An adjective referring to two nouns connected by the preposition cum is occasionally plural (synesis, § 280. a): as, — Iuba cum Labiēnō captī (B. Afr. 5?), Juba and Labienus were taken.

b. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (synesis, \S 280. a):—

pars certare parati (Aen. v. 108), a part ready to contend.

coloniae aliquot deductae, Prisci Latini appellati (Liv. i. 3), several colonies were planted (led out) [of men] called Old Latins.

multitūdō convictī sunt (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), a multitude were convicted. māgna pars raptae (id. i. 9), a large part [of the women] were seized.

NOTE. — A superlative in the predicate rarely takes the gender of a partitive genitive by which it is limited: as, — vēlocissimum animālium delphīnus est (Plin. N. H. ix. 20), the dolphin is the swiftest [creature] of creatures.

- 287. One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders. In such cases,
 - 1. An Attributive Adjective agrees with the nearest noun:—multae operae ac laboris, of much trouble and toil.

vita moresque mei, my life and character.

- sī rēs, sī vir, sī tempus ūlium dīgnum fuit (Mil. 19), if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.
- 2. A Predicate Adjective may agree with the nearest noun, if the nouns form one connected idea:
 - factus est strepitus et admurmurătio (Verr. i. 45), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).
 - Note. This is only when the copula agrees with the nearest subject (§ 317. c).
- 3. But generally, a Predicate Adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean *living beings*; neuter, if things without life:
 - uxor deinde ac liberi amplexi (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.
 - labor (M.) voluptāsque (F.) societāte quādam inter sē nātūrālī sunt iūncta (N.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.
- 4. If nouns of different genders include both living beings and things without life, a Predicate Adjective is sometimes masculine (or feminine), sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural:
 - rēx rēgiaque classis ūnā profectī (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.
 - nătūrā inimīca sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx (id. xliv. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.
 - legatos sortesque oraculi exspectandas (id. v. 15), that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for.
- a. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a Predicate Adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 289. c):
 - stultitia et temeritas et iniustitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 39), folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.

Adjectives used Substantively

288. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (substantively), the masculine usually to denote men or people in general of that kind, the feminine women, and the neuter things:—

omnēs, all men (everybody).
māiōrēs, ancestors.
Rōmānī, Romans.
līberta, a freedwoman.
sapiēns, a sage (philosopher).
bonī, the good (good people).

omnia, all things (everything). minores, descendants. barbari, barbarians. Sabinae, the Sabine wives. amīcus, a friend. bona, goods, property.

NOTE. — The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is comparatively rare except in the neuter (\S 289. a, c) and in words that have become practically nouns.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives or by the possessive genitive:—

tuus vicinus proximus, your next-door neighbor.

propinqui cēteri, his other relatives.

meus aequālis, a man of my own age.

êius familiaris Catilina (Har. Resp. 5), his intimate friend Catiline.

Leptae nostrī familiārissimus (Fam. ix. 13. 2), a very close friend of our friend Lepta.

b. When ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added:—

bonī, the good; omnia, everything (all things); but, — potentia omnium rērum, power over everything.

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association:—

Africus [ventus], the southwest wind; Iānuārius [mēnsis], January; vitulīna [carō], veal (calf's flesh); fera [bēstia], a wild beast; patria [terra], the fatherland; Gallia [terra], Gaul (the land of the Gallī); hīberna [castra], winter quarters; trirēmis [nāvis], a three-banked galley, trireme; argentārius [faber], a silversmith; rēgia [domus], the palace; Latīnae [fēriae], the Latin festival.

Note. — These adjectives are *specific* in meaning, not *generic* like those in § 288. They include the names of winds and months (§ 31).

For Nouns used as Adjectives, see § 321. c. For Adverbs used like Adjectives, see § 321. d.

- 289. Neuter Adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses:—
- a. The neuter singular may denote either a single object or an abstract quality:—

raptō vīvere, to live by plunder. in āridō, on dry ground.

honestum, an honorable act, or virtue (as a quality).

opus est mātūrātō, there is need of haste. [Cf. impersonal passives, § 208. d.]

- b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea:
 - honesta, honorable deeds (in general). praeterita, the past (lit., bygones). onnës fortia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).
- c. A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. \$ 287. a):—

trīste lupus stabulīs (Ecl. iii. 80), the wolf [is] a grievous thing for the fold. varium et mūtābile semper fēmina (Aen. iv. 569), woman is ever a changing and fickle thing.

maium mihi vidētur esse mors (Tusc. i. 9), death seems to me to be an evil.

d. A neuter adjective may be used as an attributive or a predicate adjective with an infinitive or a substantive clause:—

istuc ipsum non esse (Tusc. i. 12), that very "not to be." hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.

aliud est errare Caesarem nolle, aliud nolle misereri (Lig. 16), it is one thing to be unwilling that Cæsar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

Adjectives with Adverbial Force

290. An adjective, agreeing with the subject or object, is often used to qualify the action of the verb, and so has the force of an adverb:—

primus vēnit, he was the first to come (came first).

nüllus dubitō, I no way doubt.

lacti audiere, they were glad to hear.

erat Romae frequens (Rosc. Am. 16), he was often at Rome.

sērus in caelum redeās (Hor. Od. i. 2. 45), mayst thou return late to heaven.

Comparatives and Superlatives

- 291. Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows:—
- a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as,—brevior, rather short; audācior, too bold.
- b. The Superlative (of eminence) often denotes a very high degree of a quality without implying a distinct comparison: as, mons altissimus, a very high mountain.

Note. — The Superlative of Eminence is much used in complimentary references to persons and may often be translated by the simple positive.

c. With quam, vel, or unus the Superlative denotes the highest possible degree:—

quam plūrimi, as many as possible.

quam maxime potest (maxime quam potest), as much as can be.

vel minimus, the very least.

vir inus doctissimus, the one most learned man.

NOTE 1.— A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valde, very, or by per or pract in composition (§ 267. d. 1): as, — valde malus, very bad = pessimus; permagnus, very great; pracaltus, very high (or deep).

NOTE 2.—A low degree of a quality is indicated by sub in composition: as,—sub-rusticus, rather closonish, or by minus, not very; minime, not at all; parum, not enough; non satis, not much.

Note 3.— The comparative maiores (for maiores natu, greater by birth) has the special signification of ancestors; so minores often means descendants.

For the Superlative with quisque, see § 313. b. For the construction of a substantive after a Comparative, see §§ 406, 407; for that of a clause, see § 535. c, 571. a. For the Ablative of Degree of Difference with a Comparative (multo etc.), see § 414.

292. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the Comparative:—

longior quam latior acies erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).

vērier quam grātier (id. xxii. 88), more true than agreeable.

Note. — So also with adverbs: as, — libentius quam vērius (Mil. 78), with more freedom than truth.

a. Where magis is used, both adjectives are in the positive:—
disertus magis quam sapiens (Att. x. 1. 4), eloquent rather than wise.
clari magis quam honesti (Iug. 8), more renowned than honorable.

Note.—A comparative and a positive, or even two positives, are sometimes connected by quam. This use is rarer and less elegant than those before noticed:—

claris maioribus quam vetustis (Tac. Ann. iv. 61), of a family more famous than

vehementius quam caute (Tac. Agr. 4), with more fury than good heed.

293. Superlatives (and more rarely Comparatives) denoting order and succession — also medius, [ceterus], reliquus — usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant: —

summus mons, the top of the hill.

in ultima platea, at the end of the place.

prior actio, the earlier part of an action.

reliqui captivi, the rest of the prisoners.

in colle medio (B. G. i. 24), half way up the hill (on the middle of the hill). inter ceteram planitiem (Iug. 92), in a region elsewhere level.

Note. — A similar use is found in serā (multā) nocte, late at night, and the like. But medium viae, the middle of the way; multum dieī, much of the day, also occur.

PRONOUNS

294. A Pronoun indicates some person or thing without either naming or describing it. Pronouns are derived from a distinct class of roots, which seem to have denoted only ideas of place and direction (§ 228. 2), and from which nouns or verbs can very rarely be formed. They may therefore stand for Nouns when the person or thing, being already present to the senses or imagination, needs only to be pointed out, not named.

Some pronouns indicate the object in itself, without reference to its class, and have no distinction of gender. These are Personal Pronouns. They stand syntactically for Nouns, and have the same construction as nouns.

Other pronouns designate a particular object of a class, and take the gender of the individuals of that class. These are called Adjective Pronouns. They stand for Adjectives, and have the same construction as adjectives.

Others are used in both ways; and, though called adjective pronouns, may also be treated as personal, taking, however, the gender of the object indicated.

In accordance with their meanings and uses, Pronouns are classified as follows: —

Personal Pronouns (§ 295).

Interrogative Pronouns (§ 333).

Demonstrative Pronouns (§ 296). Reflexive Pronouns (§ 299). Relative Pronouns (§ 303). Indefinite Pronouns (§ 309).

Possessive Pronouns (§ 302).

Personal Pronouns

- 295. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.
- a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis:—

tē vocō, I call you. But, —

quis mē vocat? ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.

b. The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively (§ 346), and that in -ī oftenest objectively (§ 348):—

mâior vestrum, the elder of you.

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself. pars nostrum, a part (i.e. some) of us.

Note 1.— The genitives nostrum, vestrum, are occasionally used objectively (§ 348): as, — cupidus vestrum (Verr. iii. 224), fond of you; cūstos vestrum (Cat. iii. 29), the guardian of you (your guardian).

Note 2.—"One of themselves" is expressed by unus ex suis or ipsis (rarely ex sē), or unus suorum.

c. The Latin has no personal pronouns of the third person except the reflexive se. The want is supplied by a Demonstrative or Relative (§§ 296. 2, 308. f).

Demonstrative Pronouns

- 296. Demonstrative Pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.
- 1. As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives and are called Adjective Pronouns or Pronominal Adjectives (§§ 286, 287):—

hōc proeliō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been fought). eōdem proeliō, in the same battle. ex eīs aedificiīs, out of those buildings.

- 2. As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of is:—
 - Caesar et exercitus éius, Cæsar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitum suum dīmīsit, Cæsar disbanded his [own] army.]
 - sī obsidēs ab eīs dentur (B. G. i. 14), if hostages should be given by them (persons just spoken of).
 - hī sunt extrā provinciam trāns Rhodanum prīmī (id. i. 10), they (those just mentioned) are the first [inhabitants] across the Rhone.
 - ille minimum propter adulescentiam poterat (id. i. 20), he (emphatic) had very little power, on account of his youth.
- a. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 306):
 - hic locus est unus quo perfugiant; hic portus, haec arx, haec ara sociorum (Verr. v. 126), this is the only place to which they can flee for refuge; this is the haven, this the citadel, this the altar of the allies.
 - rērum caput hoc erat, hic fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 45), this was the head of things, this the source.
 - cam sapientiam interpretantur quam adhūc mortālis nēmō est consecutus [for id . . . quod] (Lael. 18), they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained.
 - 297. The main uses of hic, ille, iste, and is are the following:—
- a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, or thought). It is hence called the demonstrative of the first person.

It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for "the latter" of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for "the former," when that, though more remote on the written page, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought. Often it refers to that which has just been mentioned.

b. Ille is used of what is remote (in time, etc.); and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person.

It is sometimes used to mean "the former"; also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known; often (especially the neuter illud) to mean "the following."

c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed,—hence called the demonstrative of the second person.

It especially refers to one's opponent (in court, etc.), and frequently implies antagonism or contempt.

d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and is especially common as a personal pronoun. It does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. Often it is merely a correlative to the relative qui:—

vēnit mihi obviam tuus puer, is mihi litterās abs tē reddidit (Att. ii. 1. 1), your boy met me, he delivered to me a letter from you.

eum quem, one whom.

eum consulem qui non dubitet (Cat. iv. 24), a consul who will not hesitate.

e. The pronouns hic, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned.

The neuter forms often refer to a clause, phrase, or idea:—
est illud quidem vel maximum, animum vidēre (Tusc. i. 52), that is in truth
a very great thing,—to see the soul.

f. The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned:—
nūllam virtūs aliam mercēdem dēsīderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 28).

virtue wants no other reward except that [just mentioned] of praise.

NOTE.—But the ordinary English use of that of is hardly known in Latin. Commonly the genitive construction is continued without a pronoun, or some other construction is preferred:—

cum eī Šimonides artem memoriae polliceretur: oblivienis, inquit, mallem (Fin. ii. 104), when Simonides promised him the art of memory, "I should prefer," said he, "[that] of forgetfulness."

Caesaris exercitus Pompêiānos ad Pharsālum vīcit, the army of Cæsar defeated that of Pompey (the Pompeians) at Pharsalus.

298. The main uses of idem and ipse are as follows:—

a. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, is or idem (often with the concessive quidem) is used to indicate that person or thing:—

per unum servum et eum ex gladiatorio ludo (Att. i. 16. 5), by means of a single slave, and that too one from the gladiatorial school.

vincula, et ea sempiterna (Cat. iv. 7), imprisonment, and that perpetual.

Ti. Gracchus regnum occupăre conătus est, vel regnavit is quidem paucos mensis (Lael. 41), Tiberius Gracchus tried to usurp royal power, or rather he actually reigned a few months.

NOTE. — So rarely with ille: as, — nunc dextrā ingemināns ictūs, nunc ille sinistrā (Aen. v. 457), now dealing redoubled blows with his right hand, now (he) with his left. [In imitation of the Homeric $\delta \gamma \epsilon$: cf. Aen. v. 334; ix. 796.]

b. Idem, the same, is often used where the English requires an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time):—

ōrātiō splendida et grandis et eadem in prīmīs facēta (Brut. 273), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty too.

cum [haec] dicat, negat idem esse in Deō grātiam (N. D. i. 121), when he says this, he denies also that there is mercy with God (he, the same man).

Note. — This is really the same use as in a above, but in this case the pronoun cannot be represented by a pronoun in English.

c. The intensive ipse, self, is used with any of the other pronouns, with a noun, or with a temporal adverb for the sake of emphasis:—

turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur (Phil. i. 9), even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful.

id ipsum, that very thing; quod ipsum, which of itself alone.

in eum ipsum locum, to that very place.

tum ipsum (Off. ii. 60), at that very time.

NOTE 1.— The emphasis of ipse is often expressed in English by just, very, mere, etc. NOTE 2.— In English, the pronouns himself etc. are used both intensively (as, he will come himself) and reflexively (as, he will kill himself): in Latin the former would be translated by ipse, the latter by se or sese.

- d. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, as follows:—
- 1. As an emphatic pronoun of the third person:—

idque reī pūblicae praeclārum, ipsīs glōriōsum (Phil. ii. 27), and this was splendid for the state, glorious for themselves.

omnes boni quantum in ipsis fuit (id. ii. 29), all good men so far as was in their power (in themselves).

- di capiti ipsius generique reservent (Aen. viii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head.
- 2. To emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person:—
 võbīscum ipsī recordāminī (Phil. ii. 1), remember in your own minds (yourselves with yourselves).
- 3. To distinguish the principal personage from subordinate persons:—
 ipse dixit (cf. αὐτὸς ἔφα), he (the Master) said it.

Nomentanus erat super ipsum (Hor. S. ii. 8. 23), Nomentanus was above [the host] himself [at table].

- e. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of a reflexive (see § 300. b).
- f. Ipse usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis in English is on a reflexive in the predicate:
 - mē ipse consolor (Lael. 10), I console myself. [Not mē ipsum, as the English would lead us to expect.]

Reflexive Pronouns

299. The Reflexive Pronoun (sē), and usually its corresponding possessive (suus), are used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause:—

sē ex nāvī proiēcit (B. G. iv. 25), he threw himself from the ship.

Dumnorīgem ad sē vocat (id. i. 20), he calls Dumnorix to him.

sēsē castrīs tenēbant (id. iii. 24), they kept themselves in camp.

contemnī sē putant (Cat. M. 65), they think they are despised.

Caesar suās copiās subdūcit (B. G. i. 22), Cæsar leads up his troops.

Caesar statuit sibi Rhēnum esse trānseundum (id. iv. 16), Cæsar decided that he must cross the Rhine (the Rhine must be crossed by himself).

a. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (mei, tui, etc.) and the corresponding possessives (meus, tuus, etc.) are used:—

morti më obtuli (Mil. 94), I have exposed myself to death.

hinc to reginae ad limina perfer (Aen. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen's threshold.

quid est quod tantis nos in laboribus exerceamus (Arch. 28), what reason is there why we should exert ourselves in so great toils?

- singulis võbīs novēnōs ex turmīs manipulisque vestrī similēs ēligite (Liv. xxi. 54), for each of you pick out from the squadrons and maniples nine like yourselves.
- 300. In a subordinate clause of a complex sentence there is a double use of Reflexives.
- 1. The reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (Direct Reflexive):—

iūdicārī potest quantum habeat in se bonī constantia (B. G. i. 40), it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).

[Caesar] noluit eum locum vacăre, ne Germani e suis finibus transirent (id. i. 28), Cæsar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.

sī qua sīgnificātiō virtūtis ēlūceat ad quam sē similis animus adplicet et adiungat (Lael. 48), if any sign of virtue shine forth to which a similar disposition may attach itself.

- 2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (*Indirect Reflexive*):
 - petiërunt ut sibi licëret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).
 - Iccius nuntium mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittatur (id. ii. 6), Iccius sends a message that unless relief be furnished him, etc.
 - decima legio el gratias egit, quod de se optimum iudicium fecisset (id. i. 41), the tenth legion thanked him because [they said] he had expressed a high opinion of them.
 - si obsides ab eis (the Helvetians) sibi (Cæsar, who is the speaker) dentur, se (Cæsar) cum eis pacem esse factürum (id. i. 14), [Cæsar said that] if hostages were given him by them he would make peace with them.
- Note.—Sometimes the person or thing to which the reflexive refers is not the grammatical subject of the main clause, though it is in effect the subject of discourse: Thus,—cum ipsī deō nihil minus grātum futūrum sit quam non omnibus patēre ad sē plācandum viam (Legg. ii. 25), since to God himself nothing will be less pleasing than that the way to appease him should not be open to all men.
- a. If the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found:
 - sunt ita multi ut eos carcer capere non possit (Cat. ii. 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here se could not be used; so also in the example following.]
 - ibi in proximis villis ita bipartito fuerunt, ut Tiberis inter eos et pons interesset (id. iii. 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions).
 - non fuit eo contentus quod ei praeter spem acciderat (Manil. 25), he was not content with that which had happened to him beyond his hope.
 - Compare: qui fit, Maecēnās, ut nēmō, quam sibi sortem seu ratiō dederit seu fors obiēcerit, illā contentus vivat (Hor. S. i. 1. 1), how comes it, Mæcenas, that nobody lives contented with that lot which choice has assigned him or chance has thrown in his way? [Here sibi is used to put the thought into the mind of the discontented man.]
- **b.** Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an *indirect reflexive*, either to avoid ambiguity or from carelessness; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the *direct reflexive*:
 - cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsīus dīligentiā dēspērārent (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence? omnia aut ipsēs aut hostēs populātēs (Q. C. iii. 5. 6), [they said that] either they themselves or the enemy had laid all waste. [Direct reflexive.]

- qui se ex his minus timidos existimari volebant, non se hostem vereri, sed angustias itineris et magnitudinem silvarum quae intercederent inter ipsos (the persons referred to by se above) atque Ariovistum... timere dicebant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovistus.
- audīstis nūper dīcere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium quī sacrīs anniversāriīs apud eōs colerētur esse sublātum (Verr. iv. 84), you have just heard the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away. [Here Cicero wavers between apud eōs colēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sē colerētur, the words of the ambassadors. eōs does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people the Tyndaritani.]
- 301. Special uses of the Reflexive are the following: —
- a. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause:—
 - Paetus omnīs libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1), Pætus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation) his brother had left him.
- b. The reflexive may refer to any noun or pronoun in its own clause which is so emphasized as to become the subject of discourse:—
 - Socratem cives sui interfecerunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.
 - qui poterat salūs sua cuiquam non probāri (Mil. 81), how can any one fail to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the emphasis is preserved in English by the change of voice.]
 - hunc sī secūtī erunt suī comitēs (Cat. ii. 10), this man, if his companions follow him.
- Note. Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed: as, studeō sānāre sibi ipsōs (Cat. ii. 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i.e. ut sānī sibi sint).
- c. Suus is used for one's own as emphatically opposed to that of others, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word in it:
 - suis flammis delete Fidenas (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidenæ with its own fires (the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 32.]
 - d. The reflexive may depend upon a verbal noun or adjective:—sui laus, self-praise.
 - habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself.
 - perditī hominēs cum suī similibus servīs (Phil. i. 5), abandoned men with slaves like themselves.

e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely:—

contentum suis rebus esse maximae sunt divitiae (Par. 51), the greatest wealth is to be content with one's own.

cui proposita sit conservatio sui (Fin. v. 37), one whose aim is self-preservation.

f. Inter sē (nos, vos), among themselves (ourselves, yourselves), is regularly used to express reciprocal action or relation:—

inter se confligunt (Cat. i. 25), contend with each other. inter se continentur (Arch. 2), are joined to each other.

Possessive Pronouns

302. The Possessive Pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not those of the possessor:—

haec ornamenta sunt mea (Val. iv. 4), these are my jewels. [mea is neuter plural, though the speaker is a woman.]

mei sunt ordines, mea discriptio (Cat. M. 59), mine are the rows, mine the arrangement. [mea is feminine, though the speaker is Cyrus.]

multa in nostrō collēgiō praeclāra (id. 64), [there are] many fine things in our college. [nostrō is neuter singular, though men are referred to.]

Germānī suās copiās castrīs ēdūxērunt (B. G. i. 51), the Germans led their troops out of the camp.

a. To express possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns are regularly used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (§ 343. a):—

domus mea, my house. [Not domus meī.] pater noster, our father. [Not pater nostrī.] patrimōnium tuum, your inheritance. [Not tuī.]

Note 1. — Exceptions are rare in classic Latin, common in later writers. For the use of a possessive pronoun instead of an Objective Genitive, see § 348. a.

NOTE 2. — The Interrogative Possessive chius, -a, -um, occurs in poetry and early Latin: as, — chium pecus (Ecl. iii. 1), whose flock? The genitive chius is generally used instead.

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of peculiar to, favorable or propitious towards, the person or thing spoken of:—

[petere] ut suā clēmentiā ac mānsuētūdine ūtātur (B. G. ii. 14), they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity.

ignoranti quem portum petat nullus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71. 3), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own). tempore tuo pugnāstī (Liv. xxxviii. 45. 10), did you fight at a fit time?

NOTE. — This use is merely a natural development of the meaning of the possessive, and the pronoun may often be rendered literally.

c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context:—

socium fraudāvit, he cheated his partner. [socium suum would be distinctive, his partner (and not another's); suum socium, emphatic, his own partner.]

d. Possessive pronouns and adjectives implying possession are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation:—

nostri, our countrymen, or men of our party.

suos continebat (B. G. i. 15), he held his men in check.

flamma extrēma meðrum (Aen. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.

Sullani, the veterans of Sulla's army; Pompêiani, the partisans of Pompey.

Note. — There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here. The adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see § 288).

e. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun:—

meā solīus causā (Ter. Heaut. 129), for my sake only.

in nostro omnium fleta (Mil. 92), amid the tears of us all.

ex Anniānā Milonis domo (Att. iv. 3. 3), out of Annius Milo's house. [Equivalent to ex Anni Milonis domo.]

nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.

suum ipsīus rēgnum, his own kingdom.

For the special reflexive use of the possessive suus, see §§ 299, 300.

Relative Pronouns

303. A Relative Pronoun agrees with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. In the fullest construction the antecedent is expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative refers: as,—iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locīs esse Germānōs audiēbat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those Places in which Places he heard the Germans were. But one of these nouns is commonly omitted.

The antecedent is in Latin very frequently (rarely in English) found in the relative clause, but more commonly in the antecedent clause.

Thus relatives serve two uses at the same time: —

- 1. As Nouns (or Adjectives) in their own clause: as,—eī quī Alesiae obsīdēbantur (B. G. vii. 77), those who were besieged at Alesia.
- 2. As Connectives: as, T. Balventius, qui superiore anno primum pilum duxerat (id. v. 35), Titus Balventius, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

When the antecedent is in a different sentence, the relative is often equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction: as,—quae cum ita sint (= et cum ea ita sint), [and] since this is so.

The subordinating force did not belong to the relative originally, but was developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. But the subordinating and the later connective force were acquired by qui at such an early period that the steps of the process cannot now be traced.

304. A Relative Pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence —

eum nihil delectabat quod fas esset (Mil. 43), nothing pleased him which was right,

the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fas esset, indicating a relation between the two.

- 305. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number; but its Case depends on its construction in the clause in which it stands:
 - ea dies quam constituerat venit (B. G. i. 8), that day which he had appointed came.
 - pontem qui erat ad Genāvam iubet rescindī (id. i. 7), he orders the bridge which was near Geneva to be cut down.
 - Aduatuci, de quibus supra diximus, domum reverterunt (id. ii. 29), the Aduatuci, of whom we have spoken above, returned home.

Note. — This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, qualis, quantus, quicumque, etc.

- a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 286, 287):
 - fīlium et fīliam, quōs valdē dīlēxit, unō tempore āmīsit, he lost at the same time a son and a daughter whom he dearly loved.
 - grandēs nātū mātrēs et parvulī līberī, quōrum utrōrumque aetās misericordiam nostram requirit (Verr. v. 129), aged matrons and little children, whose time of life in each case demands our compassion.
 - ōtium atque divitiae, quae prima mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth, which men count the first (objects of desire).
 - eae früges et früctüs quos terra gignit (N. D. ii. 37), those fruits and crops which the earth produces.

For the Person of the verb agreeing with the Relative, see § 316. a.

- 306. A Relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. § 296. a):
 - mare etiam quem Neptūnum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 52), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]
 - Thebae ipsae, quod Boeotiae caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Bæotia. [Not quae.]

Note. — This rule is occasionally violated: as, — flümen quod appellatur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is called the Thames.

- a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction):
 - sī aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōnsuēstī (Fam. v. 14), if you should do something of what you are used to do. [For eōrum quae.]
 - Note. Occasionally the antecedent is attracted into the case of the relative:—
 urbem quam statuō vestra est (Aen. i. 573), the city which I am founding is yours.
 Naucratem, quem convenire voluī, in nāvī non erat (Pl. Am. 1009), Naucrates,
 whom I wished to meet, was not on board the ship.
- **b.** A relative may agree in gender and number with an *implied* antecedent:
 - quārtum genus . . . quī in vetere aere alieno vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), a fourth class, who are staggering under old debts.
 - unus ex eo numero qui parati erant (Iug. 35), one of the number [of those] who were ready.
 - coniūrāvēre paucī, dē quā [i.e. coniūrātione] dīcam (Sall. Cat. 18), a few have conspired, of which [conspiracy] I will speak.
- Note. So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun: as, nostra ācta, quōs tyrannōs vocās (Vat. 29), the deeds of us, whom you call tyrants. [Here quōs agrees with the nostrum (genitive plural) implied in nostra.]

Antecedent of the Relative

- 307. The Antecedent Noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted.
 - a. The antecedent noun may be repeated in the relative clause:—
 locī nātūra erat haec quem locum nostrī dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), the nature
 of the ground which our men had chosen was this.
- **b.** The antecedent noun may appear only in the relative clause, agreeing with the relative in case:
 - quās rēs in consulātū nostro gessimus attigit hīc versibus (Arch. 28), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.
 - quae prīma innocentis mihi dēfēnsiō est oblāta suscēpī (Sull. 92), I undertook the first defence of an innocent man that was offered me.
- Note. In this case the relative clause usually comes first (cf. § 308. d) and a demonstrative usually stands in the antecedent clause:
 - quae pars cīvitātis calamitātem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea prīnceps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.
 - quae grātia currum fuit vīvīs, eadem sequitur (Aen. vi. 653), the same pleasure that they took in chariots in their lifetime follows them (after death).
 - qui fit ut nëmo, quam sibi sortem ratio dederit, illa contentus vivat (cf. Hor. S. i. 1. 1), how does it happen that no one lives contented with the lot which choice has assigned him?

- c. The antecedent may be omitted, especially if it is indefinite:—
 qui decimae legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the
 eagle of the tenth legion.
 - qui cognoscerent misit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoitre.
- d. The phrase id quod or quae res may be used (instead of quod alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea:—
 - [obtrectātum est] Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō? an utrīque—id quod est vērius? (Manil. 57), an affront has been offered—shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or—which is truer—to both?
 - multum sunt in venātionibus, quae res vires alit (B. G. iv. 1), they spend much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength.
- Note. But quod alone often occurs: as, Cassius noster, quod mihi magnae voluptatī fuit, hostem rêiēcerat (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius which was a great satisfaction to me—had driven back the enemy.
- e. The antecedent noun, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause:
 - firmi [amīcī], cûius generis est māgna pēnūria (Lael. 62), steadfast friends, a class of which there is great lack (of which class there is, etc.).
- f. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) belonging to the antecedent may stand in the relative clause:
 - vāsa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 63), those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]

Special Uses of the Relative

- 308. In the use of Relatives, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English:—

liber quem mihi dedistī, the book you gave me.
is sum quī semper fuī, I am the same man I always was.
eō in locō est dē quō tibi locūtus sum, he is in the place I told you of.

- b. When two relative clauses are connected by a copulative conjunction, a relative pronoun sometimes stands in the first and a demonstrative in the last:
 - erat profectus obviam legionibus Macedonicis quattuor, quas sibi conciliare pecunia cogitabat easque ad urbem adducere (Fam. xii. 23. 2), he had set out to meet four legions from Macedonia, which he thought to win over to himself by a gift of money and to lead (them) to the city.

c. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English, — particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency:—

leges quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).

Caesar qui Galliam vicit, Cæsar the conqueror of Gaul.

iūsta gloria qui est frūctus virtūtis (Pison. 57), true glory [which is] the fruit of virtue.

ille qui petit, the plaintiff (he who sues). qui legit, a reader (one who reads).

d. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 307. b):—

quae pars civitātis Helvētiae insignem calamitātem populo Romāno intulerat, ea princeps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), the portion of the Helvetian state which had brought a serious disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.

Note. — In colloquial language, the relative clause in such cases often contains a redundant demonstrative pronoun which logically belongs in the antecedent clause: as, —ille quī consulte cavet, diūtine ūtī bene licet partum bene (Plaut. Rud. 1240), he who is on his guard, he may long enjoy what he has well obtained.

e. The relative with an abstract noun may be used in a parenthetical clause to characterize a person, like the English such:—

quae vestra prūdentia est (Cael. 45), such is your wisdom. [Equivalent to pro vestra prūdentia.]

audīssēs comoedos vel lēctorem vel lyristēn, vel, quae mea līberālitās, omnēs (Plin. Ep. i. 15), you would have listened to comedians, or a reader, or a lyre-player, or — such is my liberality — to all of them.

f. A relative pronoun (or adverb) often stands at the beginning of an independent sentence or clause, serving to connect it with the sentence or clause that precedes:—

Caesar statuit exspectandam classem; quae ubi convēnit (B. G. iii. 14). Cæsar decided that he must wait for the fleet; and when this had come together, etc.

quae qui audiebant, and those who heard this (which things).

quae cum ita sint, and since this is so.

quo cum venisset, and when he had come there (whither when he had come).

NOTE. — This arrangement is common even when another relative or an interrogative follows. The relative may usually be translated by an English demonstrative, with or without and.

g. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case; so, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun:—

mortuus Cūmīs quō sē contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cumæ, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quās.] locus quō aditus non erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access. rēgna unde genus dūcis (Aen. v. 801), the kingdom from which you derive

unde petitur, the defendant (he from whom something is demanded).

h. The relatives qui, qualis, quantus, quot, etc. are often rendered simply by as in English:—

idem quod semper, the same as always.

cum esset tālis quālem tē esse videō (Mur. 32), since he was such a man as I see you are.

tanta dimicătio quanta numquam fuit (Att. vii. 1. 2), such a fight as never was before.

tot mala quot sidera (Ov. Tr. i. 5. 47), as many troubles as stars in the sky.

i. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

Indefinite Pronouns

- 309. The Indefinite Pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.
- 310. Quis, quispiam, aliquis, quidam, are particular indefinites, meaning some, a certain, any. Of these, quis, any one, is least definite, and quidam, a certain one, most definite; aliquis and quispiam, some one, stand between the two:—

dīxerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.

- aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quidam would mean certain persons defined to the speaker's mind, though not named.]
- habitant hic quaedam mulieres pauperculae (Ter. Ad. 647), some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliquae or nescio quae].
- a. The indefinite quis is rare except in the combinations sī quis, if any; nisi quis, if any...not; nē quis, lest any, in order that none; num quis (ecquis), whether any; and in relative clauses.
- b. The compounds quispiam and aliquis are often used instead of quis after sī, nisi, nē, and num, and are rather more emphatic:
 - quid si hōc quispiam voluit deus (Ter. Eun. 875), what if some god had desired this?
 - nisi alicui suorum negotium daret (Nep. Dion. 8. 2), unless he should employ some one of his friends.
 - cavebat Pompêius omnia, ne aliquid vos timeretis (Mil. 66), Pompey took every precaution, so that you might have no fear.

- 311. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui), some one (some), is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam, any one, or ulius, any, would be required:
 - iūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam (Fin. i. 50), justice never does harm to any-body. [alicui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]
 - non sine aliquo metu, not without some fear. But, sine ullo metu, without any fear.
 - cum aliquid non habeas (Tusc. i. 88), when there is something you have not.
- Note. The same distinction holds between quis and aliquis on the one hand, and quisquam (ullus) on the other, in conditional and other sentences when a negative is expressed or suggested:
 - sī quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Lael. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was. dum praesidia ūlla fuērunt (Rosc. Am. 126), while there were any armed forces. sī quid in tē peccāvī (Att. iii. 15. 4), if I have done wrong towards you [in any particular case (see § 310)].
- 312. Quivis or quilibet (any one you will), quisquam, and the corresponding adjective ullus, any at all, are general indefinites.

Quivis and quilibet are used chiefly in affirmative clauses, quisquam and ullus in clauses where a universal negative is expressed or suggested:—

- non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 36), it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth. [non cuiquam would mean not any man's.] quemlibet modo aliquem (Acad. ii. 132), anybody you will, provided it be somebody.
- sī quisquam est timidus, is ego sum (Fam. vi. 14. 1), if any man is timorous, I am he.
- si tempus est üllum iüre hominis necandi (Mil. 9), if there is any occasion whatever when homicide is justifiable.
- Note. The use of the indefinites is very various, and must be learned from the Lexicon and from practice. The choice among them may depend merely on the point of view of the speaker, so that they are often practically interchangeable. The differences are (with few exceptions) those of logic, not of syntax.
- 313. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each of two), and unus quisque (every single one) are used in general assertions:
 - bonus liber melior est quisque quo maior (Plin. Ep. i. 20. 4), the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better in proportion, etc.).
 - ambō exercitūs suās quisque abeunt domōs (Liv. ii. 7. 1), both armies go away, every man to his home.
 - uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectu (B. G. vii. 35), each army was in sight of the other (each to each).
 - ponite ante oculos unum quemque regum (Par. i. 11), set before your eyes each of the kings.

a. Quisque regularly stands in a dependent clause, if there is one:—
quō quisque est sollertior, hōc docet īrācundius (Rosc. Com. 31), the keenerwitted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches.

Note. — Quisque is generally postpositive 1: as, suum cuique, to every man his own.

b. Quisque is idiomatically used with superlatives and with ordinal numerals:—

nobilissimus quisque, all the noblest (one after the other in the order of their nobility).2

prīmō quōque tempore (Rosc. Am. 36), at the very first opportunity. antīquissimum quodque tempus (B. G. i. 40), the most ancient times. decimus quisque (id. v. 52), one in ten.

NOTE 1. — Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as, — sapientissimus quisque aequissimo animo moritur (Cat. M. 83), the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity.

Note 2. — Quotus quisque has the signification of how many, pray? often in a disparaging sense (how few):—

quotus enim quisque disertus? quotus quisque iūris perītus est (Planc. 62), for how few are eloquent! how few are learned in the law!

quotus enim istud quisque fēcisset (Lig. 26), for how many would have done this? [i.e. scarcely anybody would have done it].

314. Nēmō, no one, is used of persons only —

- 1. As a substantive: nēminem accūsat, he accuses no one.
- 2. As an adjective pronoun instead of nullus: vir nēmo bonus (Legg. ii. 41), no good man.

Note. — Even when used as a substantive, nēmo may take a noun in apposition: as, — nēmo scrīptor, nobody [who is] a writer.

a. Nüllus, no, is commonly an adjective; but in the genitive and ablative singular it is regularly used instead of the corresponding cases of nēmō, and in the plural it may be either an adjective or a substantive:—

nüllüm mittitur tēlum (B. C. ii. 13), not a missile is thrown.

nüllö hoste prohibente (B. G. iii. 6), without opposition from the enemy.

nüllius insector calamitātem (Phil. ii. 98), I persecute the misfortune of no one.

nüllö adiuvante (id. x. 4), with the help of no one (no one helping).

nülli erant praedōnēs (Flacc. 28), there were no pirates.

nülli eximentur (Pison. 94), none shall be taken away.

For non nemo, non nullus (non nulli), see § 326. a.

¹ That is, it does not stand first in its clause.

² As, in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.

Alius and Alter

- 315. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; ceteri and reliqui, all the rest, the others; alteruter, one of the two:
 - proptereā quod aliud iter habērent nüllum (B. G. i. 7), because (as they said) they had no other way.
 - uni epistulae respondi, venio ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17. 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.
 - alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), the second class.
 - iēcissem ipse mē potius in profundum ut cēteros conservarem (Sest. 45), I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.
 - Servilius consul, reliquique magistratus (B. C. iii. 21), Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.
 - cum sit necesse alterum utrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), since it must be that one of the two should prevail.
- Note. Alter is often used, especially with negatives, in reference to an indefinite number where one is opposed to all the rest taken singly:
 - dum në sit të ditior alter (Hor. S. i. 1. 40), so long as another is not richer than you (lit. the other, there being at the moment only two persons considered). non ut magis alter, amīcus (id. i. 5. 33), a friend such that no other is more so.
- a. The expressions alter... alter, the one... the other, alius... alius, one... another, may be used in pairs to denote either division of a group or reciprocity of action:
 - alteri dimicant, alteri victorem timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.
 - alteram alteri praesidio esse iusserat (B. C. iii. 89), he had ordered each (of the two legions) to support the other.
 - alii gladiis adoriuntur, alii fragmentis saeptõrum (Sest. 79), some make an attack with swords, others with fragments of the railings.
 - alius ex alio causam quaerit (B. G. vi. 37), they ask each other the reason. alius alium percontamur (Pl. Stich. 370), we keep asking each other.
- b. Alius and alter are often used to express one as well as another (the other) of the objects referred to:
 - alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.
 - aliud est maledicere, aliud accüsare (Cael. 6), it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.
- c. Alius repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses briefly a double statement:
 - alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, another another (another seeks another thing).
 - iussit aliös alibī fodere (Liv. xliv. 38), he ordered different persons to dig in different places.
 - alii alio loco resistebant (B. C. ii. 39), some halted in one place, some in another.

VERBS

Agreement of Verb and Subject

316. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: —

ego statuō, I resolve. senātus dēcrēvit, the senate ordered. silent lēgēs inter arma (Mil. 11), the laws are dumb in time of war.

Note.—In verb-forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (§ 286):—

oratio est habita, the plea was delivered. bellum exortum est, a war arose.

a. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent:—

adsum qui fēci (Aen. ix. 427), here am I who did it.

- tū, quī scīs, omnem dīligentiam adhibēbis (Att. v. 2. 3), you, who know, will use all diligence.
- vidēte quam dēspiciāmur omnēs qui sumus ē mūnicipils (Phil. iii. 15), see how all of us are scorned who are from the free towns.
- **5.** A verb sometimes agrees in number (and a participle in the verbform in number and gender) with an appositive or predicate noun:
 - amantium Irae amoris integratio est (Ter. And. 555), the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love.
 - non omnis error stultitia dicenda est (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.
 - Corinthus lümen Graeciae exstinctum est (cf. Manil. 11), Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

Double or Collective Subject

317. Two or more Singular Subjects take a verb in the Plural: pater et avus mortui sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

NOTE. — So rarely (by synesis, § 280. a) when to a singular subject is attached an ablative with cum: as, — dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur (Liv. xxi. 60), the general and several leading men are taken.

- a. When subjects are of different persons, the verb is usually in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third:
 - sī tū et Tullia valētis ego et Cicerō valēmus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

Note. — In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives (see § 287. 2-4).

- b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives (§ 223. a), or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is usually singular:
 - quem neque fides neque ius iurandum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.
 - senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman senate and people understand. [But, neque Caesar neque ego habitī essēmus (id. xi. 20), neither Cæsar nor I should have been considered.]
 - fāma et vīta innocentis dēfenditur (Rosc. Am. 15), the reputation and life of an innocent man are defended.
 - est in eō virtūs et probitās et summum officium summaque observantia (Fam. xiii. 28 a. 2), in him are to be found worth, uprightness, the highest sense of duty, and the greatest devotion.

Note. — So almost always when the subjects are abstract nouns.

- c. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects separately, it often agrees with one and is understood with the others:
 - intercēdit M. Antonius Q. Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. 2), Mark Antony and Quintus Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.
 - hoc mihi et Peripatetici et vetus Academia concedit (Acad. ii. 113), this both the Peripatetic philosophers and the Old Academy grant me.
- d. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular; but the plural is often found with collective nouns when *individuals* are thought of (\S 280. a):—
 - (1) senātus haec intellegit (Cat. i. 2), the senate is aware of this.
 - ad hīberna exercitus redit (Liv. xxi. 22), the army returns to winter-quarters. plēbēs ā patribus sēcessit (Sall. Cat. 33), the plebs seceded from the patricians.
 - (2) pars praedās agēbant (Iug. 32), a part brought in booty.
 - cum tanta multitūdo lapides conicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd were throwing stones.
- Note 1.—The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as,—equitatum omnem . . . quem habēbat praemittit, quī videant (B. G. i. 15), he sent ahead all the cavalry he had, to see (who should see).
- NOTE 2. The singular of a noun regularly denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to denote a group: as, Poenus, the Carthaginians; miles, the soldiery; eques, the cavalry.
- e. Quisque, each, and ūnus quisque, every single one, have very often a plural verb, but may be considered as in partitive apposition with a plural subject implied (cf. § 282. a):
 - sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Pl. Curc. 180), let every one keep his own (let them keep every man his own).
- Note. So also uterque, each (of two), and the reciprocal phrases alius . . . alium, alter . . . alterum ($\S 315. a$).

Omission of Subject or Verb

- 318. The Subject of the Verb is sometimes omitted:—
- a. A Personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic:—

loquor, I speak. But, ego loquor, it is I that speak.

- b. An indefinite subject is often omitted: crēderēs, you would have supposed; putāmus, we (people) think; dīcunt, ferunt, perhibent, they say.
- c. A passive verb is often used impersonally without a subject expressed or understood (\S 208. d):—

diù atque acriter pügnatum est (B. G. i. 26), they fought long and vigorously.

- 319. The verb is sometimes omitted:—
- a. Dīcō, faciō, agō, and other common verbs are often omiţted in familiar phrases:—

quorsum haec [spectant], what does this aim at?

ex ungue leonem [cognosces], you will know a lion by his claw.

quid multa, what need of many words? (why should I say much?)

quid? quod, what of this, that . . .? (what shall I say of this, that . . .?)
[A form of transition.]

Aeolus haec contră (Aen. i. 76), Æolus thus [spoke] in reply.

tum Cotta [inquit], then said Cotta.

dī meliora [duint]! (Cat. M. 47), Heaven forfend (may the gods grant better things)!

unde [venīs] et quo [tendis]? (Hor. S. ii. 4. 1), where from and whither bound? [Cf. id. i. 9. 62 for the full form.]

b. The copula sum is very commonly omitted in the present indicative and present infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive:—

tū coniūnx (Aen. iv. 113), you [are] his wife.

quid ergō? audācissimus ego ex omnibus (Rosc. Am. 2), what then? am I the boldest of all?

omnia praeclāra rāra (Lael. 79), all the best things are rare.

potest incidere saepe contentio et comparatio de duobus honestis utrum honestius (Off. i. 152), there may often occur a comparison of two honorable actions, as to which is the more honorable. [Here, if any copula were expressed, it would be sit, but the direct question would be complete without any.]

accipe quae peragenda prius (Aen. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accomplished. [Direct: quae peragenda prius?]

PARTICLES

Adverbs

- 320. The proper function of Adverbs, as petrified case-forms, is to modify Verbs: as,—celeriter ire, to go with speed. It is from this use that they derive their name (adverbium, from ad, to, and verbum, verb; see § 241. b). They also modify adjectives, showing in what manner or degree the quality described is manifested: as, splendide mendax, gloriously false. More rarely they modify other adverbs: as, nimis graviter, too severely. Many adverbs, especially relative adverbs, serve as connectives, and are hardly to be distinguished from conjunctions (see § 20. g. n.).
- 321. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.
- a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 308. g):
 - eō [= in ea] impōnit vāsa (Iug. 75), upon them (thither, thereon, on the beasts) he puts the camp-utensils.
 - eo milites imponere (B. G. i. 42), to put soldiers upon them (the horses).
 - apud eōs quō [= ad quōs] sē contulit (Verr. iv. 38), among those to whom (whither) he resorted.
 - qui eum necăsset unde [= quō] ipse nătus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).
 - ō condiciones miseras administrandarum provinciarum ubi [= in quibus] severitas periculosa est (Flacc. 87), O! wretched terms of managing the provinces, where strictness is dangerous.
- b. The participles dictum and factum, when used as nouns, are regularly modified by adverbs rather than by adjectives; so occasionally other perfect participles:—

praeclārē facta (Nep. Timoth. 1), glorious deeds (things gloriously done). multa facētē dicta (Off. i. 104), many witty sayings.

c. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb:—

victor exercitus, the victorious army.
admodum puer, quite a boy (young).
magis vir, more of a man (more manly).
populum lātē rēgem (Aen. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide.

Note. — Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which have no adjective force but which contain a verbal idea:—

hinc abitio (Plaut. Rud. 503), a going away from here.

quid cogitem de obviam itione (Att. xiii. 50), what I think about going to meet (him). [Perhaps felt as a compound.]

¹ For the derivation and classification of adverbs, see §§ 214-217.

- d. A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are obviam, palam, sometimes contrā, and occasionally others:
 - fit obviam Clodio (Mil. 29), he falls in with (becomes in the way of) Clodius. [Cf. the adjective obvius: as,—sī ille obvius eī futūrus non erat (id. 47), if he was not likely to fall in with him.]
 - haec commemoro quae sunt palam (Pison. 11), I mention these facts, which are well-known.
 - alia probabilia, contra alia dicimus (Off. ii. 7), we call some things probable, others the opposite (not probable). [In this use, contra contradicts a previous adjective, and so in a manner repeats it.]
 - erī semper lēnitās (Ter. And. 175), my master's constant (always) gentleness.

 [An imitation of a Greek construction.]

Note. — In some cases one can hardly say whether the adverb is treated as an adjective modifying the noun, or the noun modified is treated as an adjective (as in c above).

For propius, pridie, palam, and other adverbs used as prepositions, see § 432.

- 322. The following adverbs require special notice: —
- a. Etiam (et iam), also, even, is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it:—

non verbis solum sed etiam vi (Verr. ii. 64), not only by words, but also by force.

hoc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 117), this crime too.

b. Nunc¹ means definitely now, in the immediate present, and is rarely used of the immediate past.

Iam means now, already, at length, presently, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives iam means (no) longer.

Tum, then, is correlative to cum, when, and may be used of any time. Tunc, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum (†tum-ce, cf. nunc):—

ut iam anteā dīxī, as I have already said before.

sī iam satis aetātis atque rōboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 149), if he had attained a suitable age and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will have by and by). nōn est iam lēnitātī locus, there is no longer room for mercy.

quod iam erat înstitutum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).

nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florebat (Lael. 13), now ('t is true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.

tum cum regnabat, at the time when he reigned.

¹ For †num-ce; cf. tunc (for †tum-ce).

- c. Certo means certainly, certe (usually) at least, at any rate: certo scio, I know for a certainty; ego certe, I at least.
- d. Primum means first (first in order, or for the first time), and implies a series of events or acts. Primo means at first, as opposed to afterwards, giving prominence merely to the difference of time:—

hōc prīmum sentiō, this I hold in the first place. aedīs prīmō ruere rēbāmur, at first we thought the house was falling.

Note. — In enumerations, prīmum (or prīmō) is often followed by deinde, secondly, in the next place, or by tum, then, or by both in succession. Deinde may be several times repeated (secondly, thirdly, etc.). The series is often closed by dēnique or postrēmō, lastly, finally. Thus, — prīmum dē genere bellī, deinde dē māgnitūdine, tum dē imperātōre dēligendō (Manil. 6), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.

e. Quidem, indeed, gives emphasis, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc.:—

hōc quidem vidēre licet (Lael. 54), this surely one may see. [Emphatic.] [sēcūritās] speciē quidem blanda, sed reāpse multīs locīs repudianda (id. 47), (tranquillity) in appearance, 't is true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

- f. Nē... quidem means not even or not... either. The emphatic word or words must stand between nē and quidem:
 - sed në Iugurtha quidem quiëtus erat (Iug. 51), but Jugurtha was not quiet either.
 - ego autem në îrāscī possum quidem iis quos valdē amo (Att. ii. 19. 1), but I cannot even get angry with those whom I love very much.

Note. — Equidem has the same senses as quidem, but is in Cicero confined to the first person. Thus, — equidem adprobabo (Fam. ii. 3. 2), I for my part shall approve.

CONJUNCTIONS 1

323. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them:—

scriptum senātui et populo (Cat. iii. 10), written to the senate and people. ut eās [partīs] sānārēs et confirmārēs (Mil. 68), that you might cure and strengthen those parts.

neque meā prūdentiā neque hūmānīs consiliis frētus (Cat. ii. 29), relying neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.

¹ For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 223, 224.

- a. Conjunctions of Comparison (as ut, quam, tamquam, quasi) also commonly connect similar constructions:
 - his igitur quam physicis potius credendum existimas (Div. ii. 37), do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers?
 - hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quam Phormionem (Ter. Ph. 591), a shrewder man I never saw than Phormio (cf. § 407).
 - ut non omne vinum sic non omnis natūra vetustate coacēscit (Cat. M. 65), as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature.
 - in me quasi in tyrannum (Phil. xiv. 15), against me as against a tyrant.
- **b.** Two or more coördinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (Asyndeton, § 601. c): omnēs dī, hominēs, all gods and men.
 - summi, medii, infimi, the highest, the middle class, and the lowest.
 - iūra, lēgēs, agros, libertātem nobis reliquērunt (B. G. vii. 77), they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty.
- c. 1. Where there are more than two coördinate words etc., a conjunction, if used, is ordinarily used with all (or all except the first):
 - aut aere alieno aut magnitudine tributorum aut iniuria potentiorum (B. G. vi. 13), by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.
 - at sunt morosi et anxii et iracundi et difficiles senes (Cat. M. 65), but (you say) old men are capricious, solicitous, choleric, and fussy.
- 2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it):
 - propudium illud et portentum, L. Antönius Insigne odium omnium hominum (Phil. xiv. 8), that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.
 - utrumque ēgit graviter, auctoritāte et offensione animī non acerbā (Lael. 77), he acted in both cases with dignity, without loss of authority and with no bitterness of feeling.
- 3. The enclitic -que is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent:
 - võce voltū mõtūque (Brut. 110), by voice, expression, and gesture. cūram cōnsilium vigilantiamque (Phil. vii. 20), care, wisdom, and vigilance. quōrum auctōritātem dīgnitātem voluntātemque dēfenderās (Fam. i. 7. 2), whose dignity, honor, and wishes you had defended.
- d. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction:—

multae et graves causae, many weighty reasons. vir liber ac fortis (Rep. ii. 34), a free and brave man. e. Often the same conjunction is repeated in two coordinate clauses:

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et . . . et (-que . . . -que), both . . . and.
aut . . . aut, either . . . or.
vel . . . vel, either . . . or. [Examples in § 324. e.]
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sive (seu) . . . sive (seu), whether . . . or. [Examples in § 324. f.]

f. Many adverbs are similarly used in pairs, as conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force:—

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nunc...nunc, tum...tum, iam...iam, now...now.
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modo... modo, now... now.

simul . . . simul, at the same time . . . at the same time.

quā...quā, now...now, both...and, alike [this] and [that].

modo ait modo negat (Ter. Eun. 714), now he says yes, now no.

simul grātiās agit, simul grātulātur (Q. C. vi. 7. 15), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.

ērumpunt saepe vitia amīcorum tum in ipsos amīcos tum in alienos (Lael. 76), the faults of friends sometimes break out, now against their friends themselves, now against strangers.

quā maris quā fēminās (Pl. Mil. 1113), both males and females.

g. Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions:—

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ut (rel.) . . . ita, sīc (dem.), as (while) . . . so (yet).

tam (dem.) . . . quam (rel.), so (as) . . . as.

cum (rel.) . . . tum (dem.), while . . . so also; not only . . . but also.
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324. The following Conjunctions require notice: —

a. Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always enclitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected:

cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.

ferro ignique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]

aquā et igni interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

b. Atque (ac), and, adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to and so, and yet, and besides, and then. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable:—

omnia honesta atque inhonesta, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).

usus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).

atque ego credo, and yet I believe (for my part).

c. Atque (ac), in the sense of as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness:—

simul atque, as soon as.

non secus (non aliter) ac sī, not otherwise than if.

pro eo ac debui, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).

aequē ac tū, as much as you.

haud minus ac iussi faciunt, they do just as they are ordered.

For and not, see § 328. a.

d. Sed and the more emphatic vērum or vērō, but, are used to introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (not this . . . but something else). At (old form ast) introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others; sometimes it means at least. At enim is almost always used to introduce a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. At is more rarely used alone in this sense.

Autem, however, now, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often marks a mere transition and has hardly any adversative force perceptible. Atqui, however, now, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. Quod si, but if, and if, now if, is used to continue an argument.

- Note. Bt, -que, and atque (ac) are sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest but, especially when a negative clause is followed by an affirmative clause continuing the same thought: as, impetum hostes ferre non potuerunt ac terga verterunt (B. G. iv. 35), the enemy could not stand the onset, but turned their backs.
- e. Aut, or, excludes the alternative; vel (an old imperative of volo) and -ve give a choice between two alternatives. But this distinction is not always observed:
 - sed quis ego sum aut quae est in me facultas (Lael. 17), but who am I or what special capacity have I? [Here vel could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded.]
 - aut bibat aut abeat (Tusc. v. 118), let him drink or (if he won't do that, then let him) quit. [Here vel would mean, let him do either as he chooses.]
 - vīta tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel gloriā (Lael. 12), his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame (whichever way you look at it).
 - sī propinquōs habeant imbēcilliōrēs vel animō vel fortūnā (id. 70), if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune (in either respect, for example, or in both).
 - aut deōrum aut rēgum filiī (id. 70), sons either of gods or of kings. [Here one case would exclude the other.]
 - implicati vel usu diuturno vel etiam officiis (id. 85), entangled either by close intimacy or even by obligations. [Here the second case might exclude the first.]

- f. Sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (if either... or if), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing:
 - sīve inrīdēns sīve quod ita putāret (De Or. i. 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.
 - sive deae seu sint volucres (Aen. iii. 262), whether they (the Harpies) are goddesses or birds.
- g. Vel, even, for instance, is often used as an intensive particle with no alternative force: as, vel minimus, the very least.
- h. Nam and namque, for, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; enim (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; etenim (for, you see; for, you know; for, mind you) and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.
 - (ea vīta) quae est sola vīta nominanda. nam dum sumus inclūsī in hīs compāgibus corporis, mūnere quodam necessitātis et gravī opere perfungimur; est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. M. 77), (that life) which alone deserves to be called life; for so long as we are confined by the body's frame, we perform a sort of necessary function and heavy task. For the soul is from heaven.
 - hārum trium sententiārum nūllī prorsus adsentior. nec enim illa prīma vēra est (Lael. 57), for of course that first one is n't true.
- i. Ergō, therefore, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. Igitur, then, accordingly, is weaker than ergō and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. Itaque, therefore, accordingly, and so, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof. All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. Idcircō, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative (as, quia, quod, sī, ut, nē), and refers to the special point introduced by the correlative.
 - malum mihi vidētur esse mors. est miserum igitur, quoniam malum. certē. ergō et eī quibus ēvēnit iam ut morerentur et eī quibus ēventūrum est miserī. mihi ita vidētur. nēmō ergō nōn miser. (Tusc. i. 9.) Death seems to me to be an evil. 'It is wretched, then, since it is an evil.' Certainly. 'Therefore, all those who have already died and who are to die hereafter are wretched.' So it appears to me. 'There is no one, therefore, who is not wretched.'
 - quia nătūra mūtārī non potest, idcirco vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt (Lael. 32), because nature cannot be changed, for this reason true friendships are eternal.



- j. Autem, enim, and vērō are postpositive ; so generally igitur and often tamen.
- k. Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at vērō, but in truth, but surely, still, however; itaque ergō, accordingly then; namque, for; et-enim, for, you see, for of course (§ 324. h).

For Conjunctions introducing Subordinate Clauses, see Syntax.

Negative Particles 2

- 325. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed:
 - 326. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: —

nēmo non audiet, every one will hear (nobody will not hear).

non possum non confiteri (Fam. ix. 14. 1), I must confess.

- ut... në non timëre quidem sine aliquo timore possimus (Mil. 2), so that we cannot even be relieved of fear without some fear.
- a. Many compounds or phrases of which non is the first part express an indefinite affirmative:—

non nullus, some; non nulli (= aliqui), some few.

non nihil (= aliquid), something.

non nemo (= aliquot), sundry persons.

non numquam (= aliquotiens), sometimes.

b. Two negatives of which the second is non (belonging to the predicate) express a universal affirmative:—

nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does]. [Cf. nōn nēmō, not nobody, i.e. somebody.]

nihil non, everything. [Cf. non nihil, something.]

numquam non, never not, i.e. always. [Cf. non numquam, sometimes.]

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (Litotes, § 641):—

non semel (= saepissime), often enough (not once only).

non haec sine numine divom eveniunt (Aen. ii. 777), these things do not occur without the will of the gods.

haec non nimis exquiro (Att. vii. 18. 3), not very much, i.e. very little.

Note. — Compare non nullus, non nemo, etc., in a above.

¹ That is, they do not stand first in their clause.

² For a list of Negative Particles, see § 217. e.

- 327. A general negation is not destroyed —
- 1. By a following nē... quidem, not even, or non modo, not only:—
 numquam tū non modo otium, sed nē bellum quidem nisi nefārium concupisti
 (Cat. i. 25), not only have you never desired repose, but you have never
 desired any war except one which was infamous.
- 2. By succeeding negatives each introducing a separate subordinate member:
 - eaque nesciëbant nec ubi nec qualia essent (Tusc. iii. 4); they knew not where or of what kind these things were.
 - 3. By neque introducing a coördinate member:—
 neques satis mirari neque conicere (Ter. Eun. 547), I cannot wonder enough
 nor conjecture.
- 328. The negative is frequently joined with a conjunction or with an indefinite pronoun or adverb. Hence the forms of negation in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions:
 - nülli (neutri) credo (not non credo ülli), I do not believe either (I believe neither).
 - sine üllö periculo (less commonly cum nüllö), with no danger (without any danger).
 - nihil umquam audivi iūcundius, I never heard anything more amusing.
 - Cf. nego haec esse vēra (not dīco non esse), I say this is not true (I deny, etc.).
- a. In the second of two connected ideas, and not is regularly expressed by neque (nec), not by et non:
 - hostes terga verterunt, neque prius fugere destiterunt (B. G. i. 53), the enemy turned and fled, and did not stop fleeing until, etc.
- Note. Similarly nec quisquam is regularly used for et nëmë; neque üllus for et nüllus; nec umquam for et numquam; nëve (neu), for et në.
- 329. The particle immo, nay, is used to contradict some part of a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that immo becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather):—

 causa igitur non bona est? immo optima (Att. ix. 7. 4), is the cause then not
 - causa igitur non bona est? immo optima (Att. ix. 7. 4), is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.
- a. Minus, less (especially with sī, if, quō, in order that), and minimē, least, often have a negative force:
 - sī minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see § 558. b.] audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 2), am I the boldest of them all? by no means (not at all).

QUESTIONS

Forms of Interrogation

- 330. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.
- 1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker:—
 quid est? what is it?

 ubi sum? where am I?
- 2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question, adapted to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb or other expression of asking, doubting, knowing, or the like:—

rogāvit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct: quid est, what is it?] nesciō ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: ubi sum, where am I?]

331. Questions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.¹

NOTE. — The form of Indirect Questions (in English introduced by whether, or by an interrogative pronoun or adverb) is in Latin the same as that of Direct; the difference being only in the verb, which in indirect questions is regularly in the Subjunctive (§ 574).

332. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word:—

tune id veritus es (Q. Fr. i. 3. 1), did you fear that?

hīcine vir usquam nisi in patriā moriētur (Mil. 104), shall this man die anywhere but in his native land?

is tibi mortemne vidētur aut dolorem timēre (Tusc. v. 88), does he seem to you to fear death or pain?

a. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted: —

patëre tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your schemes are manifest? (you do not see, eh?)

Note. — In such cases, as no sign of interrogation appears, it is often doubtful whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

b. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer:—

nonne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 89), do you not observe? num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 107), there is no doubt, is there?

Note. — In Indirect Questions num commonly loses its peculiar force and means simply whether.

¹ For a list of Interrogative Particles, see § 217. d.

c. The particle -ne often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of nonne:—

meministine mē in senātū dicere (Cat. i. 7), don't you remember my saying in the Senate?

rēctēne interpretor sententiam tuam (Tusc. iii. 37), do I not rightly interpret your meaning?

Note 1.—This was evidently the original meaning of -ne; but in most cases the negative force was lost and -ne was used merely to express a question. So the English interrogative no? shades off into eh?

Note 2.— The enclitic -ne is sometimes added to other interrogative words: as, utrumne, whether? anne, or; quantane (Hor. S. ii. 3. 317), how big? quone malo (id. ii. 3. 295), by what curse?

333. A question concerning some special circumstance is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb as in English (§ 152):—

quid exspectās (Cat. ii. 18), what are you looking forward to?
quō igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6. 11), whither then is all this tending?

Īcare, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), Icarus, where are you?

quod vectīgal võbīs tūtum fuit? quem socium dēfendistis? cui praesidiō classibus vestrīs fuistis? (Manil. 32), what revenue has been safe for you? what ally have you defended? whom have you guarded with your fleets?

Note. — A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the tone of the voice: as,—

quālis vir erat! what a man he was! quot calamitātēs passī sumus! how many misfortunes we have suffered! quō studiō consentiunt (Cat. iv. 15), with what zeal they unite!

a. The particles -nam (enclitic) and tandem may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis:—

quisnam est, pray who is it? [quis tandem est? would be stronger.] ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we? in quā tandem urbe hōc disputant (Mil. 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?

Note — Tandem is sometimes added to verbs: —
ain tandem (Fam. ix. 21), you don't say so! (say you so, pray?)
itane tandem uxōrem dūxit Antiphō (Ter. Ph. 231), so then, eh? Antipho's got
married.

Double Questions

- 334. A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is the true one.
- 335. In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or, annon, necne, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one:—

utrum nescis, an pro nihilo id putas (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don't know, or do you think nothing of it?

vosne L. Domitium an vos Domitius deseruit (B. C. ii. 32), did you desert . Lucius Domitius, or did Domitius desert you?

quaero servosne an liberos (Rosc. Am. 74), I ask whether slaves or free.

utrum hostem an vos an fortunam utriusque populi ignoratis (Liv. xxi. 10), is it the enemy, or yourselves, or the fortune of the two peoples, that you do not know?

Note. — Anne for an is rare. Necne is rare in direct questions, but in indirect questions it is commoner than annon. In poetry -ne . . . -ne sometimes occurs.

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case an or -ne (anne, necne) may stand in the second:—

Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompêiō an utrīque (Manil. 57), shall I say to Gabinius, or to Pompey, or to both?

sunt haec tua verba necne (Tusc. iii. 41), are these your words or not? quaesivi ă Catilină in conventu apud M. Laecam fuisset necne (Cat. ii. 13), I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting at Marcus Læca's or not.

- b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and an (anne) alone asks the question, usually with indignation or surprise:
 - an tū miseros putās illos (Tusc. i. 13), what ! do you think those men wretched? an iste umquam dē sē bonam spem habuisset, nisi dē vobīs malam opīnionem animo imbibisset (Verr. i. 42), would he ever have had good hopes about himself unless he had conceived an evil opinion of you?
- c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and utrum may ask a question to which there is no alternative:
 - utrum est in clārissimīs cīvibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?
- d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions:—

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utrum . . . an . . . an

utrum . . . annon (necne, see § 335. N.)

-ne . . . an (anne)

-ne . . . -ne, necne

-ne . . . necne

-ne . . . -ne
```

NOTE. — From double (alternative) questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve). Thus, — quaero num iniūstē aut improbē fēcerit (Off. iii. 54), I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly. Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the man did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.

Question and Answer

336. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply yes or no. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with non or a similar negative:—

valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).
eratne tēcum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).
num quidnam novī? there is nothing new, is there? nihil sānē, oh! nothing.

- a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question:—
 - 1. For yes: —

vērō, in truth, true, no doubt, yes.

etiam, even so, yes, etc.

ita, so, true, etc.

sānē, surely, no doubt, doubtless, etc.

certē, certainly, unquestionably, etc.

factum, true, it's a fact, you're right, etc. (lit., it was done).

2. For No:—

non, not so.

nullo modo, by no means.

minime, not at all (lit., in the smallest degree, cf. § 329. a).

minime vero, no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.

non quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.

non hercle vero, why, gracious, no! (certainly not, by Hercules!)

Examples are: —

quidnam? an laudātiones? ita, why, what? is it eulogies? just so. aut etiam aut non respondere (Acad. ii. 104), to answer (categorically) yes or no. estne ut fertur forma? sānē (Ter. Eun. 361), is she as handsome as they say she is? (is her beauty as it is said?) oh! yes.

miser ergō Archelaus? certē sī iniūstus (Tusc. v. 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.

an haec contemnitis? minime (De Or. ii. 295), do you despise these things? not at all.

volucribusne et ferīs? minimē vērō (Tusc. i. 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.

- ex tui animi sententia tu uxorem habes? non hercle, ex mei animi sententia (De Or. ii. 260), Lord! no, etc.
- 337. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated:—

vidisti an dē audītō nūntiās? — egomet vidī (Plaut. Merc. 902), did you see it or are you repeating something you have heard? — I saw it myself.

CONSTRUCTION OF CASES

338. The Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. The most primitive way of expressing such relations was by mere juxtaposition of uninflected forms. From this arose in time composition, i.e. the growing together of stems, by means of which a complex expression arises with its parts mutually dependent. Thus such a complex as armi-gero- came to mean arm-bearing; fidi-cen-, playing on the lyre. Later, Cases were formed by means of suffixes expressing more definitely such relations, and Syntax began. But the primitive method of composition still continues to hold an important place even in the most highly developed languages.

Originally the Indo-European family of languages, to which Latin belongs, had at least seven case-forms, besides the Vocative. But in Latin the Locative and the Instrumental were lost 1 except in a few words (where they remained without being recognized as cases), and their functions were divided among the other cases.

The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative express the simplest and perhaps the earliest case-relations. The Nominative is the case of the Subject, and generally ends in -s. The Vocative, usually without a termination, or like the Nominative (§ 38. a), perhaps never had a suffix of its own.² The Accusative, most frequently formed by the suffix -m, originally connected the noun loosely with the verb-idea, not necessarily expressed by a verb proper, but as well by a noun or an adjective (see § 386).

The Genitive appears to have expressed a great variety of relations and to have had no single primitive meaning; and the same may be true of the Dative.

The other cases perhaps at first expressed relations of place or direction (TO, FROM, AT, WITH), though this is not clear in all instances. The earlier meanings, however, have become confused with each other, and in many instances the cases are no longer distinguishable in meaning or in form. Thus the Locative was for the most part lost from its confusion with the Dative and Ablative; and its function was often performed by the Ablative, which is freely used to express the place where (§ 421). To indicate the case-relations—especially those of place—more precisely, Prepositions (originally adverbs) gradually came into use. The case-endings, thus losing something of their significance, were less distinctly pronounced as time went on (see § 36, phonetic decay), and prepositions have finally superseded them in the modern languages derived from Latin. But in Latin a large and various body of relations was still expressed by case-forms. It is to be noticed that in their literal use cases tended to adopt the preposition, and in their figurative uses to retain the old construction. (See Ablative of Separation, §§ 402-404; Ablative of Place and Time, § 421 ff.)

The word casus, case, is a translation of the Greek $\pi\tau\hat{\omega}\sigma$ is, a falling away (from the erect position). The term $\pi\tau\hat{\omega}\sigma$ is was originally applied to the Oblique Cases (§ 35. g), to mark them as variations from the Nominative, which was called $\delta\rho\theta\eta$, erect (casus rectus). The later name Nominative (casus nominativus) is from nomino, and means the naming case. The other case-names (except Ablative) are of Greek origin. The name Genitive (casus genetivus) is a translation of γ erich [$\pi\tau\hat{\omega}\sigma$ is], from γ eros (class), and refers to the class to which a thing belongs. Dative (casus dativus, from do) is translated from $\delta\sigma\tau$ ich, and means the case of giving. Accusative (accūsātīvus, from accūsō) is a mistranslation of altiatich (the case of causing), from altla, cause, and meant to the Romans the case of accusing. The name Vocative (vocatīvus, from vocō) is translated from $\kappa\lambda\eta\tau$ ich (the case of calling). The name Ablative (ablātīvus, from ablātus, auferō) means taking from. This case the Greek had lost.

¹ Some of the endings, however, which in Latin are assigned to the dative and ablative are doubtless of locative or instrumental origin (see p. 34, footnote).

² The e-vocative of the second declension is a form of the stem (§ 45. c).

NOMINATIVE CASE

339. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative: —

Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat (B. G. iv. 17), Cæsar had determined to cross the Rhine.

For the omission of a pronominal subject, see § 295. a.

a. The nominative may be used in exclamations:—

ën dextra fidësque (Aen. iv. 597), lo, the faith and plighted word!

ecce tuae litterae de Varrone (Att. xiii. 16), lo and behold, your letters about

Varro!

Note. — But the accusative is more common (§ 397. d).

VOCATIVE CASE

- 340. The Vocative is the case of direct address:—
 - Tiberine pater, tē, sāncte, precor (Liv. ii. 10), O father Tiber, thee, holy one, I pray.
- rēs omnis mihi tēcum erit, Hortēnsī (Verr. i. 33), my whole attention will be devoted to you, Hortensius.
- a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative:—
 audī tū, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.
- b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used in poetry instead of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person:—

 quō moritūre ruis (Aen. x. 811), whither art thou rushing to thy doom?

 cēnsōrem trabeāte salūtās (Pers. iii. 29), robed you salute the censor.
- c. The vocative macte is used as a predicate in the phrase macte estō (virtūte), success attend your (valor):—
- iubërem të macte virtûte esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper in your valor.

macte novā virtūte puer (Aen. ix. 641), success attend your valor, boy!

Note. — As the original quantity of the final e in macte is not determinable, it may be that the word was an adverb, as in bene est and the like.

GENITIVE CASE

341. The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the *adjective* case, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which may be called *adverbial* cases.

The uses of the Genitive may be classified as follows: —

I. Genitive with Nouns:

1. Genitive with Nouns:

1. Genitive with Adjectives:

1. Of Possession (§ 343).

2. Of Material (§ 344).

3. Of Quality (§ 345).

4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 346).

5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 348).

1. After Relative Adjectives (or Verbals) (§ 349).

2. Of Specification (later use) (§ 349. d).

1. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (§§ 350, 351, 354).

2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 352).

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS

342. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition of, sometimes by the English genitive (or possessive) case:—

librī Ciceronis, the books of Cicero, or Cicero's books.

inimici Caesaris, Cæsar's enemies, or the enemies of Cæsar.

talentum auri, a talent of gold.

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the greatest courage.

But observe the following equivalents:—

vacātiō labōris, a respite from toil.

petītiō consulātūs, candidacy for the consulship.

regnum civitătis, royal power oven the state.

Possessive Genitive

343. The Possessive Genitive denotes the person or thing to which an object, quality, feeling, or action belongs:—

Alexandri canis, Alexander's dog.

potentia Pompêī (Sall. Cat. 19), Pompey's power.

Ariovistī mors (B. G. v. 29), the death of Ariovistus.

perditorum temeritas (Mil. 22), the recklessness of desperate men.

Note 1.—The Possessive Genitive may denote (1) the actual owner (as in Alexander's dog) or author (as in Cicero's writings), or (2) the person or thing that possesses some feeling or quality or does some act (as in Cicero's eloquence, the strength of the bridge, Catiline's evil deeds). In the latter use it is sometimes called the Subjective Genitive; but this term properly includes the possessive genitive and several other genitive constructions (nearly all, in fact, except the Objective Genitive, § 347).

NOTE 2. — The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: — ad Castoris [aedēs] (Quinct. 17), at the [temple] of Castor. [Cf. St. Paul's.] Flaccus Claudī, Flaccus [slave] of Claudius.

Hectoris Andromachē (Aen. iii. 319), Hector's [wife] Andromache.

a. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used, — regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns ($\S 302. a$):—

liber meus, my book. [Not liber meī.] aliēna perīcula, other men's dangers. [But also aliōrum.] Sullāna tempora, the times of Sulla. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The possessive genitive often stands in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb (*Predicate Genitive*):—

haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.

iam mē Pompēi tōtum esse scīs (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey (all Pompey's).

summa laus et tua et Brūtī est (Fam. xii. 4. 2), the highest praise is due both to you and to Brutus (is both yours and Brutus's).

compendi facere, to save (make of saving).

lucri facere, to get the benefit of (make of profit).

Note. — These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in § 343 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive (§§ 282, 283).

c. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate:—

neque sui itidici [erat] discernere (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).

câiusvis hominis est errare (Phil. xii. 5), it is any man's [liability] to err.

negāvit mōris esse Graecōrum, ut in convīviō virōrum accumberent mulierēs (Verr. ii. 1. 66), he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for women to appear as guests (recline) at the banquets of men.

sed timidī est optāre necem (Ov. M. iv. 115), but 't is the coward's part to wish for death.

stulti erat spērāre, suādēre impudentis (Phil. ii. 23), it was folly (the part of a fool) to hope, effrontery to urge.

sapientis est pauca loqui, it is wise (the part of a wise man) to say little.

[Not sapiens (neuter) est, etc.]

NOTE 1. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last two examples).

Note 2.—A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and must be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun:—

mentiri non est meum [not mei], it is not for me to lie.

hūmānum [for hominis] est errāre, it is man's nature to err (to err is human).

d. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (Appositional Genitive) (§ 282):—

nomen insaniae (for nomen insania), the word madness.

oppidum Antiochiae (for oppidum Antiochia, the regular form), the city of Antioch.

Genitive of Material

344. The Genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (cf. § 403):—

talentum auri, a talent of gold.

flümina lactis, rivers of milk.

Genitive of Quality

345. The Genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective:—

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the highest courage. [But not vir virtūtis.] māgnae est dēlīberātionis, it is an affair of great deliberation. māgnī formīca laboris (Hor. S. i. 1. 33), the ant [a creature] of great toil. ille autem suī iūdicī (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.

Note. — Compare Ablative of Quality (§ 415). In expressions of quality, the genitive or the ablative may often be used indifferently: as, praestanti prüdentiä vir, a man of surpassing wisdom; maximi animi homo, a man of the greatest courage. In classic prose, however, the genitive of quality is much less common than the ablative; it is practically confined to expressions of measure or number, to a phrase with êius, and to nouns modified by magnus, maximus, summus, or tantus. In general the Genitive is used rather of essential, the Ablative of special or incidental characteristics.

a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases êius modī, cûius modī (equivalent to tālis, such; quālis, of what sort):—

êius modī sunt tempestātēs consecutae, utī (B. G. iii. 29), such storms followed, that, etc.

b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (Genitive of Measure):—

fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth]. mūrus sēdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

For the Genitive of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 417.

Partitive Genitive

- 346. Words denoting a Part are followed by the Genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.
 - a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are —
 - 1. Nouns or Pronouns (cf. also 3 below):—

 pars mīlitum, part of the soldiers. quis nostrum, which of us?

 nihil erat reliquī, there was nothing left.

 nēmō eōrum (B. G. vii. 66), not a man of them.

 māgnam partem eōrum interfēcērunt (id. ii. 23), they killed a large part of them.

2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like alius, alter, nüllus, etc.:—

unus tribunorum, one of the tribunes (see c below).

sapientum octāvus (Hor. S. ii. 3. 296), the eighth of the wise men.

milia passuum sescenta (B. G. iv. 3), six hundred miles (thousands of paces). mäior frätrum, the elder of the brothers.

animālium fortiora, the stronger [of] animals.

Sueborum gens est longe maxima et bellicosissima Germanorum omnium (B. G. iv. 1), the tribe of the Suevi is far the largest and most warlike of all the Germans.

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

nülla eārum (B.G. iv. 28), not one of them (the ships).

3. Neuter Adjectives and Pronouns, used as nouns: —

tantum spati, so much [of] space.

aliquid nummorum, a few pence (something of coins).

id locī (or locōrum), that spot of ground; id temporis, at that time (§ 397. a). plāna urbis, the level parts of the town.

quid novi, what news? (what of new?)

paulum frümenti (B. C. i. 78), a little grain.

plus doloris (B. G. i. 20), more grief.

sui aliquid timoris (B. C. ii. 29), some fear of his own (something of his own fear).

Note 1. — In classic prose neuter adjectives (not pronominal) seldom take a partitive genitive, except multum, tantum, quantum, and similar words.

NOTE 2. — The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively:—nihil novī (genitive), nothing new; but,—nihil memorābile (nominative), nothing worth mention (not nihil memorābilis).

4. Adverbs, especially those of Quantity and of Place:—

parum oti, not much ease (too little of ease).

satis pecuniae, money enough (enough of money).

plūrimum totīus Galliae equitātū valet (B. G. v. 3), is strongest of all Gaul in cavalry.

ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we (where of nations)?

ubicumque terrarum et gentium (Verr. v. 143), wherever in the whole world. res erat eo iam loci ut (Sest. 68), the business had now reached such a point that, etc.

eō miseriārum (Iug. 14. 3), to that [pitch] of misery. inde locī, next in order (thence of place). [Poetical.]

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case:—

sequimur tē, sāncte deōrum (Aen. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity. [For sāncte deus (§ 49. g. n.)]

nigrae lānārum (Plin. H. N. viii. 193), black wools. [For nigrae lānae.] expedītī mīlitum (Liv. xxx. 9), light-armed soldiers. [For expedītī mīlitēs.] hominum cūnctōs (Ov. M. iv. 631), all men. [For cūnctōs hominēs; cf. e.]

c. Cardinal numerals (except milia) regularly take the Ablative with \bar{e} (ex) or $d\bar{e}$ instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quidam, a certain one, commonly, and other words occasionally:—

ūnus ex tribūnīs, one of the tribunes. [But also, ūnus tribūnōrum (cf. a. 2).] minumus ex illīs (Iug. 11), the youngest of them. medius ex tribus (ib.), the middle one of the three. quidam ex mīlitibus, certain of the soldiers. ūnus dē multīs (Fin. ii. 66), one of the many. paucī dē nostrīs cadunt (B. G. i. 15), a few of our men fall. hominem dē comitibus meīs, a man of my companions.

d. Uterque, both (properly each), and quisque, each, with Nouns are regularly used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns take a partitive genitive:—

uterque consul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrum, both of us. unus quisque vestrum, each one of you. utraque castra, both camps.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of any thing take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part when only that part is thought of:—

nos omnes, all of us (we all). [Not omnes nostrum.] quot sunt hostes, how many of the enemy are there? cave inimicos, qui multi sunt, beware of your enemies, who are many. multi milites, many of the soldiers. nemo Romans, not one Roman.

Objective Genitive

- 347. The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.
- 348. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the Genitive of the Object:—

cāritās tuī, affection for you. vacātiō mūneris, relief from duty. fuga malorum, refuge from disaster. contentiō honorum, struggle for office. dēsīderium ötī, longing for rest. grātia beneficī, gratitude for kindness. precātiō deōrum, prayer to the gods. opīniō virtūtis, reputation for valor.

Note. — This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive). Thus in the phrase odium Caesaris, hate of Cæsar, the hate in a passive sense belongs to Cæsar, as odium, though in its active sense he is the object of it, as hate (cf. a). The distinction between the Possessive (subjective) and the Objective Genitive is very unstable and is often lost sight of. It is illustrated by the following example: the phrase amor patris, love of a father, may mean love felt by a father, a father's love (subjective genitive), or love towards a father (objective genitive).

a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive pronoun or other derivative adjective:—

mea invidia, my unpopularity (the dislike of which I am the object). [Cf. odium meī (Har. Resp. 5), hatred of me.]

laudator meus (Att. i. 16. 5), my eulogist (one who praises me). [Cf. nostri laudator (id. i. 14. 6).]

Clodianum crimen (Mil. 72), the murder of Clodius (the Clodian charge). [As we say, the Nathan murder.]

metus hostīlis (Iug. 41), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).

ea quae faciëbat, tuā sē fīdūciā facere dicēbat (Verr. v. 176), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).

neque neglegentia tua, neque id odio fecit tuo (Ter. Ph. 1016), he did this neither from neglect nor from hatred of you.

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive:—

animī multārum rērum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), the mind's traversing of many things.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive:—

odium in Antonium (Fam. x. 5. 3), hate of Antony.

merita ergā mē (id. i. 1. 1), services to me.

meam in të pietatem (id. i. 9. 1), my devotion to you.

impetus in urbem (Phil. xii. 29), an attack on the city.

excessus ē vītā (Fin. iii. 60), departure from life. [Also, excessus vītae, Tusc. i. 27.]

adoptiō in Domitium (Tac. Ann. xii. 25), the adoption of Domitius. [A late and bold extension of this construction.]

Note.—So also in late writers the dative of reference (cf. § 366. b): as,—longō bellō māteria (Tac. H. i. 89), resources for a long war.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES

- 349. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the Objective Genitive.
- a. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites govern the genitive:—

avidī laudis (Manil. 7), greedy of praise.

fastīdiosus litterārum, disdaining letters.

iūris perītus, skilled in law. [So also the ablative, iūre, cf. § 418.]

memorem vestri, oblitum sui (Cat. iv. 19), mindful of you, forgetful of himself. rationis et orationis expertes (Off. i. 50), devoid of sense and speech.

nostrae consuetudinis imperiti (B.G. iv. 22), unacquainted with our customs.

plēnus fideī, full of good faith.
omnis speī egēnam (Tac. Ann. i. 53), destitute of all hope.
tempestātum potentem (Aen. i. 80), having sway over the storms.
impotēns īrae (Liv. xxix. 9. 9), ungovernable in anger.
coniūrātionis participēs (Cat. iii. 14), sharing in the conspiracy.
affinis reī capitālis (Verr. ii. 2. 94), involved in a capital crime.
īnsons culpae (Liv. xxii. 49), innocent of guilt.

- b. Participles in -ns govern the genitive when they are used as adjectives, i.e. when they denote a constant disposition and not a particular act:
 - sī quem tuī amantiōrem cōgnōvistī (Q. Fr. i. 1. 15), if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.
 - multitūdo insolēns belli (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war.
 - erat Iugurtha appetēns gloriae mīlitāris (Iug. 7), Jugurtha was eager for military glory.
- NOTE 1. Participles in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly governed by the verb to which they belong: as, Sp. Maelium regnum appetentem interemit (Cat. M. 56), he put to death Spurius Mælius, who was aspiring to royal power.
- NOTE 2. Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note 1) even when they express a disposition or character: as, virtūs quam aliī ipsam temperantiam dīcunt esse, aliī obtemperantem temperantiae praeceptīs et cam subsequentem (Tusc. iv. 30), observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.
- c. Verbals in -ax (§ 251) govern the genitive in poetry and later Latin:
 - iüstum et tenācem propositi virum (Hor. Od. iii. 8), a man just and steadfast to his purpose.
 - circus capāx pepuli (Ov. A. A. i. 136), a circus big enough to hold the people. cibī vīnīque capācissimus (Liv. ix. 16. 13), a very great eater and drinker (very able to contain food and wine).
- d. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any adjective, to denote that with reference to which the quality exists (Genitive of Specification):—

callidus reī mīlitāris (Tac. H. ii. 32), skilled in soldiership.

pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. 11), scant of water.

notus animi paterni (id. ii. 2. 6), famed for a paternal spirit.

fessi rērum (Aen. i. 178), weary of toil.

integer vītae scelerisque pūrus (Hor. Od. i. 22. 1), upright in life, and unstained by guilt.

Note. — The Genitive of Specification is only an extension of the construction with adjectives requiring an object of reference (§ 349). Thus callidus denotes knowledge; pauper, want; pūrus, innocence; and so these words in a manner belong to the classes under a.

For the Ablative of Specification, the prose construction, see § 418. For Adjectives of *likeness* etc. with the Genitive, apparently Objective, see § 385. c. For Adjectives with animi (locative in origin), see § 358.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS

Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting

- 350. Verbs of remembering and forgetting take either the Accusative or the Genitive of the object:—
- a. Memini takes the Accusative when it has the literal sense of retaining in the mind what one has seen, heard, or learned. Hence the accusative is used of persons whom one remembers as acquaintances, or of things which one has experienced.

So obliviscor in the opposite sense, — to forget literally, to lose all memory of a thing (very rarely, of a person).

Cinnam meminī (Phil. v. 17), I remember Cinna.

utinam avum tuum meminisses (id. i. 34), oh! that you could remember your grandfather! (but he died before you were born).

Postumium, cûius statuam in Isthmō meminisse tē dīcis (Att. xiii. 32), Postumius, whose statue you say you remember (to have seen) on the Isthmus.

omnia meminit Sīron Epicūrī dogmata (Acad. ii. 106), Siron remembers all the doctrines of Epicurus.

multa ab aliīs audīta meminērunt (De Or. ii. 355), they remember many things that they have heard from others.

totam causam oblitus est (Brut. 217), he forgot the whole case.

hinc iam obliviscere Grâios (Aen. ii. 148), from henceforth forget the Greeks (i.e. not merely disregard them, but banish them from your mind, as if you had never known them).

b. Memini takes the Genitive when it means to be mindful or regardful of a person or thing, to think of somebody or something (often with special interest or warmth of feeling).

So obliviscor in the opposite sense, — to disregard, or dismiss from the mind, — and the adjective oblitus, careless or regardless.

ipse sui meminerat (Verr. ii. 136), he was mindful of himself (of his own interests).

faciam ut hûius locī dielque melque semper memineris (Ter. Eun. 801), I will make you remember this place and this day and me as long as you live.

nec mē meminisse pigēbit Elissae, dum memor ipse meī (Aen. iv. 335), nor shall I feel regret at the thought of Elissa, so long as I remember myself. meminerint verēcundiae (Off. i. 122), let them cherish modesty.

hūmānae īnfīrmitātis meminī (Liv. xxx. 31. 6), I remember human weakness. oblīvīscī temporum meōrum, meminisse āctiōnum (Fam. i. 9. 8), to disregard my own interests, to be mindful of the matters at issue.

nec tamen Epicūrī licet oblīvīscī (Fin. v. 3), and yet I must not forget Epicurus. oblīvīscere caedis atque incendiōrum (Cat. i. 6), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations (dismiss them from your thoughts).

NOTE 1. — With both memini and obliviscor the personal and reflexive pronouns are regularly in the Genitive; neuter pronouns and adjectives used substantively are regularly in the Accusative; abstract nouns are often in the Genitive. These uses come in each instance from the natural meaning of the verbs (as defined above).

Note 2.—Memini in the sense of mention takes the Genitive: as,—eundem Achillam cûius supra meminimus (B. C. iii. 108), that same Achillas whom I mentioned above.

- c. Reminiscor is rare. It takes the Accusative in the literal sense of call to mind, recollect; the Genitive in the more figurative sense of be mindful of:
 - dulcīs moriēns reminīscitur Argōs (Aen. x. 782), as he dies he calls to mind his beloved Argos.
 - reminisceretur et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum (B. G. i. 13), let him remember both the former discomfiture of the Roman people and the ancient valor of the Helvetians. [A warning,—let him bear it in mind (and beware)!]
 - d. Recordor, recollect, recall, regularly takes the Accusative:
 - recordāre consensum illum theātrī (Phil. i. 30), recall that unanimous agreement of the [audience in the] theatre.
 - recordāminī omnīs cīvīlīs dissēnsionēs (Cat. iii. 24), call to mind all the civil wars.

Note. — Recordor takes the genitive once (Pison. 12); it is never used with a personal object, but may be followed by de with the ablative of the person or thing (cf. § 351. n.):—

de te recordor (Scaur. 49), I remember about you.

dē illīs (lacrimīs) recordor (Planc. 104), I am reminded of those tears.

Verbs of Reminding

351. Verbs of reminding take with the Accusative of the person a Genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 390. c).

So admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio, commonefio. But moneo with the genitive is found in late writers only.

Catilina admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21), Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.

eos hoc moneo (Cat. ii. 20), I give them this warning.

quod vos lex commonet (Verr. iii. 40), that which the law reminds you of.

Note. — All these verbs often take de with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them:—

saepius tē admoneō dē syngraphā Sittiānā (Fam. viii. 4. 5) I remind you again and again of Sittius's bond.

officium vostrum ut võs malõ cõgātis commonērier (Plaut. Ps. 150), that you may by misfortune force yourselves to be reminded of your duty.

Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting

352. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting, take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty:—

arguit me furti, he accuses me of theft.

pecülätüs damnātus (pecūniae pūblicae damnātus) (Flacc. 43), condemned for embezzlement.

videō nōn tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis (Verr. ii. 1. 72), I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are —

capitis, as in damnāre capitis, to sentence to death.

mâiestătis [laesae], treason (crime against the dignity of the state).

repetundarum [rērum], extortion (lit. of an action for reclaiming money).

voti damnātus (or reus), bound [to the payment] of one's vow, i.e. successful in one's effort.

pecuniae (damnare, iudicare, see note).

dupli etc., as in dupli condemnāre, condemn to pay twofold.

Note.—The origin of these genitive constructions is pointed at by pecuniae damnare (Gell. xx. 1. 38), to condemn to pay money, in a case of injury to the person; quantae pecuniae iudicati essent (id.xx.1.47), how much money they were adjudged to pay, in a mere suit for debt; confessi aeris ac debiti iudicati (id. xx. 1. 42), adjudged to owe an admitted sum due. These expressions show that the genitive of the penalty comes from the use of the genitive of value to express a sum of money due either as a debt or as a fine. Since in early civilizations all offences could be compounded by the payment of fines, the genitive came to be used of other punishments, not pecuniary. From this to the genitive of the actual crime is an easy transition, inasmuch as there is always a confusion between crime and penalty (cf. Eng. guilty of death). It is quite unnecessary to assume an ellipsis of crimine or iudicio.

353. Other constructions for the Charge or Penalty are —

1. The Ablative of Price: regularly of a definite amount of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 416):—

Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnātī (Liv. x. 1), the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.

2. The Ablative with de, or the Accusative with inter, in idiomatic expressions:—

dē aleā, for gambling; dē ambitū, for bribery.

de pecuniis repetundis, of extortion (cf. § 352. a).

inter sīcāriōs (Rosc. Am. 90), as an assassin (among the assassins).

dē vī et mâiestātīs damnātī (Phil. i. 21), convicted of assault and treason.

Note.—The accusative with ad and in occurs in later writers to express the penulty: as,—ad mortem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 21), to death; ad (in) metalla, to the mines.

Verbs of Feeling

- 354. Many verbs of feeling take the Genitive of the object which excites the feeling.
 - a. Verbs of pity, as misereor and miseresco, take the genitive:—
 miseremini familiae, iūdices, miseremini patris, miseremini fili (Flacc. 106),
 have pity on the family, etc.
 - miserēre animi non digna ferentis (Aen. ii. 144), pity a soul that endures unworthy things.
 - miserescite regis (id. viii. 573), pity the king. [Poetical.]
- Note.—But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative: as,—communem condicionem miserari (Mur. 55), bewail the common lot.
- b. As impersonals, miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet (or pertaesum est), take the genitive of the cause of the feeling and the accusative of the person affected:
 - quos infamiae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), who are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor.
 - mē miseret parietum ipsorum (Phil. ii. 69), I pity the very walls.
 - mē cīvitātis mõrum piget taedetque (Iug. 4), I am sick and tired of the ways of the state.
 - decemvirorum vos pertaesum est (Liv. iii. 67), you became tired of the decemvirs.
- c. With miseret, paenitet, etc., the cause of the feeling may be expressed by an infinitive or a clause:
 - neque me paenitet mortalis inimicitias habere (Rab. Post. 32), nor am I sorry to have deadly enmities.
 - non dedisse istunc pudet; më quia non accepi piget (Pl. Pseud. 282), he is ashamed not to have given; I am sorry because I have not received.
- Note. Miseret etc. are sometimes used personally with a neuter pronoun as subject: as, non te hace pudent (Ter. Ad. 754), do not these things shame you?

Interest and Refert

355. The impersonals interest and refert take the Genitive of the person (rarely of the thing) affected.

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause:—

- Clodi intererat Milonem perire (cf. Mil. 58), it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.
- aliquid quod illörum magis quam suā rētulisse vidērētur (Iug. 111), something which seemed to be more for their interest than his own.
- video enim quid mea intersit, quid utriusque nostrum (Fam. vii. 23. 4), for I see what is for my good and for the good of us both.

- a. Instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun the corresponding possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine after interest or refert:
 - quid tuā id refert? māgnī (Ter. Ph. 723), how does that concern you? much. [See also the last two examples above.]
 - vehementer intererat vestrā quī patrēs estis (Plin. Ep. iv. 13. 4), it would be very much to your advantage, you who are fathers.
- Note. This is the only construction with refert in classic prose, except in one passage in Sallust (see example above).
- b. The accusative with ad is used with interest and refert to express the thing with reference to which one is interested:
 - māgnī ad honorem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), it is of great consequence to our honor.
 - refert etiam ad früctüs (Varr. R. i. 16.6), it makes a difference as to the crop.
- Note 1. Very rarely the *person* is expressed by ad and the accusative, or (with refert) by the dative (probably a popular corruption):
 - quid id ad me aut ad meam rem refert (Pl. Pers. 513), what difference does that make to me or to my interests?
 - quid referat intra naturae finis viventi (Hor. S. i. 1. 49), what difference does it make to me who live within the limits of natural desire?
 - non referre dedecori (Tac. Ann. xv. 65), that it makes no difference as to the disgrace.
- Note 2. The degree of interest is expressed by a genitive of value, an adverb, or an adverbial accusative.

Verbs of Plenty and Want

- 356. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the genitive (cf. § 409. a. N.):
 - convivium vicinorum compleo (Cat. M. 46, in the mouth of Cato), I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.
 - implentur veteris Bacchi pinguisque ferinae (Aen. i. 215), they fill themselves with old wine and fat venison.
 - nē quis auxilī egeat (B. G. vi. 11), lest any require aid.
 - quid est quod defensionis indigeat (Rosc. Am. 34), what is there that needs defence?
 - quae ad consolandum mâioris ingeni et ad ferendum singulāris virtūtis indigent (Fam. vi. 4. 2), [sorrows] which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.
- Note. Verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 409. a, 401), except egeō, which takes either case, and indigeō. But the genitive is by a Greek idiom often used in poetry instead of the ablative with all words denoting separation and want (cf. § 357. b. 3):—

abstinētō īrārum (Hor. Od. iii. 27. 69), refrain from wrath.

operum solūtīs (id. iii. 17. 16), free from toils.

desine mollium querellarum (id. ii. 9. 17), have done with weak complaints.

Genitive with Special Verbs

- 357. The Genitive is used with certain special verbs.
- a. The genitive sometimes follows potior, get possession of; as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to be master of affairs:—

illius rēgnī potīrī (Fam. i. 7. 5), to become master of that kingdom.

Cleanthes solem dominari et rerum potiri putat (Acad. ii. 126), Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.

NOTE. — But potior usually takes the ablative (see § 410).

- **b.** Some other verbs rarely take the genitive —
- 1. By analogy with those mentioned in § 354:—

neque hûius sis veritus fēminae prīmāriae (Ter. Ph. 971), and you had no respect for this high-born lady.

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive:—
fastīdit meī (Plaut. Aul. 245), he disdains me. [Cf. fastīdiōsus.]
studet tuī (quoted N. D. iii. 72), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiōsus.]

3. In imitation of the Greek:—

iūstitiaene prius mīrer, bellīne laborum (Aen. xi. 126), shall I rather admire his justice or his toils in war?

neque ille sépositi ciceris nec longae invidit avenae (Hor. S. ii. 6. 84), nor did he grudge his garnered peas, etc. [But cf. invidus, parcus.]

laborum decipitur (Hor. Od. ii. 13. 38), he is beguiled of his woes. me laborum levas (Pl. Rud. 247), you relieve me of my troubles.

358. The apparent Genitive animi (really Locative) is used with a few verbs and adjectives of feeling and the like:—

Antiphō mē excruciat animī (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).

qui pendet animi (Tusc. iv. 35), who is in suspense.

mē animī fallit (Lucr. i. 922), my mind deceives me.

So, by analogy, dēsipiēbam mentis (Pl. Epid. 138), I was out of my head:

aeger animī, sick at heart; confūsus animī, disturbed in spirit.

sānus mentis aut animī (Pl. Trin. 454), sound in mind or heart.

PECULIAR GENITIVES

- 359. Peculiar Genitive constructions are the following: —
- a. A poetical genitive occurs rarely in exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation):—

dī immortālēs, mercimonī lepidī (Pl. Most. 912), good heavens! what a charming bargain!

foederis heu taciti (Prop. iv. 7. 21), alas for the unspoken agreement!

b. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causa, gratia, for the sake of; ergo, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like; also with prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; tenus, as far as:

honoris causa, with due respect (for the sake of honor).

verbī grātiā, for example.

êius lēgis ergō, on account of this law.

equus înstar montis (Aen. ii. 15), a horse huge as a mountain (the image of a mountain).

laterum tenus (id. x. 210), as far as the sides.

Note 1. - Of these the genitive with causa is a development from the possessive genitive and resembles that in nomen insaniae (§ 343,d). The others are of various origin.

Note 2. — In prose of the Republican Period pridit and postridit are thus used only in the expressions pridie (postridie) sius diei, the day before (after) that (cf. "the eve, the morrow of that day"). Tacitus uses the construction with other words: as, - postrīdič insidiārum, the day after the plot. For the accusative, see § 432. a. Tenus takes also the ablative (p. 136).

DATIVE CASE

360. The Dative is probably, like the Genitive, a grammatical case, that is, it is a form appropriated to the expression of a variety of relations other than that of the direct object. But it is held by some to be a Locative with the primary meaning of to or towards, and the poetic uses (like it clamor caelo, Aen. v. 451) are regarded as survivals of the original use.

In Latin the Dative has two classes of meanings: —

- 1. The Dative denotes an object not as caused by the action, or directly affected by it (like the Accusative), but as reciprocally sharing in the action or receiving it consciously or actively. Thus in dedit puero librum, he gave the boy a book, or fecit mihi iniuriam, he did me a wrong, there is an idea of the boy's receiving the book, and of my feeling the wrong. Hence expressions denoting persons, or things with personal attributes, are more likely to be in the dative than those denoting mere things. So in Spanish the dative is used whenever a person is the object of an action; yo veo al hombre, I see [to] the man. This difference between the Accusative and the Dative (i.e. between the Direct and the Indirect Object) depends upon the point of view implied in the verb or existing in the mind of the writer. Hence Latin verbs of similar meaning (to an English mind) often differ in the case of their object (see § 367. α).
- 2. The Dative is used to express the purpose of an action or that for which it serves (see § 382). This construction is especially used with abstract expressions, or those implying an action.

These two classes of Datives approach each other in some cases and are occasionally confounded, as in §§ 383, 384.

The uses of the Dative are the following: —

1. Indirect Object (general (1. With Transitives (§ 362). use):

2. With Intransitives (§§ 366–372).

1. Of Possession (with esse) (§ 373).

2. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 374).

Special or Idiomatic Uses:

3. Of Reference (dativus commodi) (§§ 376–381).

4. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 382).

5. Of Fitness etc. (with Adjectives) (§§ 383, 384).

INDIRECT OBJECT

361. The Dative is used to denote the object indirectly affected by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 274). It is usually denoted in English by the objective with to:—

cēdite temporī, yield to the occasion.

provincia Ciceronī obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.

inimīcīs non crēdimus, we do not trust [to] our enemies.

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH TRANSITIVES

362. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 274):—

do tibi librum, I give you a book.

illud tibi affirmo (Fam. i. 7. 5), this I assure you.

commendo tibi êius omnia negotia (id. i. 3), I put all his affairs in your hands (commit them to you).

dabis profecto misericordiae quod iracundiae negavisti (Deiot. 40), you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.

litterās ā tē mihi stator tuus reddidit (Fam. ii. 17), your messenger delivered to me a letter from you.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use, and take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone:—

mihi id aurum crēdidit (cf. Plaut. Aul. 15), he trusted that gold to me. equō nē crēdite (Aen. ii. 48), put not your trust in the horse. concessit senātus postulātionī tuae (Mur. 47), the senate yielded to your demand. concēdere amīcīs quidquid velint (Lael. 38), to grant to friends all they may wish.

- 363. Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End of Motion (§§ 426, 427):—
- 1. Some verbs implying motion take the Accusative (usually with ad or in) instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of motion prevails:—

litterās quās ad Pompêium scripsī (Att. iii. 8. 4), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. non quo haberem quod tibi scriberem (id. iv. 4A), not that I had anything to write to you.]

- litterae extemplo Romam scriptae (Liv. xli. 16), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.
- hostīs in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut mē dem fugae (Att. vii. 23), to take to flight.]
- omnës rem ad Pompêium deferri volunt (Fam. i. 1), all wish the matter to be put in the hands of Pompey (referred to Pompey).
- 2. On the other hand, many verbs of motion usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea:—

mihi litterās mittere (Fam. vii. 12), to send me a letter.

eum librum tibi mīsī (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.

nec quicquam quod non mihi Caesar detulerit (id. iv. 13), and nothing which Cæsar did not communicate to me.

cūrēs ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4. 5), take care that they be conveyed to me. cum alius alii subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another.

364. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing 1:—

donat coronas suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or,

donat suos coronis, he presents his men with wreaths.

vincula exuere sibi (Ov. M. vii. 772), to shake off the leash (from himself). omnis armis exuit (B. G. v. 51), he stripped them all of their arms.

Note 1. — Interdico, forbid, takes either (1) the Dative of the person and the Ablative of the thing, or (2) in later writers, the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing: —

aqua et igni alicui interdicere, to forbid one the use of fire and water. [The regular formula for banishment.]

interdixit histrionibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors).

fēminīs (dat.) purpurae ūsū interdīcēmus (Liv. xxxiv. 7), shall we forbid women the wearing of purple?

NOTE 2. — The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Interclūdo and prohibeo sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose:—

hīsce omnīs aditūs ad Sullam interclūdere (Rosc. Am. 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. utī commeātū Caesarem interclūderet (B. G. i. 48), to shut Cæsar off from supplies.]

hunc (oestrum) arcēbis pecorī (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuit Galliā (Phil. v. 37), he excluded him from Gaul.]

solstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock. [Cf. utī sē ā contumēliis inimīcorum defenderet (B. C. i. 22), to defend himself from the slanders of his enemies.]

¹ Such are dono, impertio, induo, exuo, adspergo, inspergo, circumdo, and in poetry accingo, implico, and similar verbs.

365. Verbs which in the active voice take the Accusative and Dative retain the Dative when used in the passive:—

nūntiābantur haec eadem Cūriōnī (B. C. ii. 37), these same things were announced to Curio. [Active: nūntiābant (quīdam) haec eadem Cūriōnī.]

nec docendi Caesaris propinquis êius spatium datur, nec tribunis plēbis sui periculi dēprecandi facultās tribuitur (id. i. 5), no time is given Cæsar's relatives to inform him, and no opportunity is granted to the tribunes of the plebs to avert danger from themselves.

provinciae privatis decernantur (id. i. 6), provinces are voted to private citizens.

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH INTRANSITIVES

366. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows:—

cedant arma togae (Phil. ii. 20), let arms give place to the gown.

Caesari respondet, he replies to Cæsar.

Caesarī respondētur, a reply is given to Cæsar (Cæsar is replied to). [Cf.§ 372.] respondī maximīs crīminibus (Phil. ii. 36), I have answered the heaviest charges. ut ita cuique ēveniat (id. ii. 119), that it may so turn out to each.

NOTE 1. — Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone as in the second example (but cf. \S 362. a).

Note 2. — Cēdō, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as, — cēdere alicui possessione hortorum (cf. Mil. 75), to give up to one the possession of a garden.

a. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 367. a. N.²):—

auctor esse alicui, to advise or instigate one (cf. persuādeō). quis huic reī testis est (Quinct. 37), who testifies (is witness) to this fact? is fīnis populātionibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30. 9), this put an end to the raids.

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 367. d, 377):—

lēgātus frātrī (Mur. 32), a lieutenant to his brother (i.e. a man assigned to his brother).

ministrī sceleribus (Tac. Ann. vi. 36), agents of crime. [Cf. sēditionis ministrī (id. i. 17), agents of sedition.]

miseriīs suīs remedium mortem exspectāre (Sall. Cat. 40), to look for death as a cure for their miseries. [Cf. solus meārum miseriārumst remedium (Ter. Ad. 294).]

NOTE. — The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of § 367. a. N.² and § 377 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object.

Indirect Object with Special Verbs

367. Many verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative:—

cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me?

mihi parcit atque Ignoscit, he spares and pardons me.

īgnosce patrio dolori (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief.

subveni patriae, opitulāre conlēgae (Fam. x. 10. 2), come to the aid of your country, help your colleague.

mihi non displicet (Clu. 144), it does not displease me.

non omnibus servio (Att. xiii. 49), I am not a servant to every man.

non parcam operae (Fam. xiii. 27), I will spare no pains.

sīc mihi persuāsī (Cat. M. 78), so I have persuaded myself.

mihi Fabius debebit īgnoscere sī minus eius famae parcere videbor quam antes consului (Tull. 3), Fabius will have to pardon me if I seem to spare his reputation less than I have heretofore regarded it.

huic legioni Caesar confidebat maxime (B. G. i. 40. 15), in this legion Cæsar trusted most.

In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidere, to envy, is literally to look askance at; servire is to be a slave to; suadere is to make a thing pleasant (sweet) to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are iuvo, adiuvo, help; laedo, injure; iubeo, order; deficio, fail; delecto, please:—

hic pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.]

Norm 1. — Fido and confido take also the Ablative (§ 431): as, — multum natura loci confidebant (B. G. iii. 9), they had great confidence in the strength of their position.

Note 2.—Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are—praesto esse, be on hand (cf. adesse); morem gerere, humor (cf. morigerari); gratum facere, do a favor (cf. gratificari); dicto audiens esse, be obedient (cf. oboedire); cui fidem habebat (B. G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confidebat).

So also many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are — bené (male, pulchré, aegré, etc.) esse, be well (ill, etc.) off; iniūriam facere, do injustice to; diem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.); agere grātiās, express one's thanks; habēre grātiam, feel thankful; referre grātiam, repay a favor; opus esse, be necessary; damnum dare, inflict an injury; acceptum (expēnsum) ferre (esse), credit (charge); honorem habēre, to pay honor to.

¹ These include, among others, the following: adversor, cēdō, crēdō, faveō, fīdō, īgnōscō, imperō, indulgeō, invideō, īrāscor, minitor, noceō, parcō, pāreō, placeō, resistō, serviō, studeō, suādeō (persuādeō), suscēnseō, temperō (obtemperō).

b. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adulor, aemulor, despero, praestolor, medeor:—
adulatus est Antonio (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony.
adulari Neronem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.
pacem non desperas (Att. viii. 15. 3), you do not despair of peace.
saluti desperare vetuit (Clu. 68), he forbade him to despair of safety.

c. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative with a difference of meaning:—1

parti civium consulunt (Off. i. 85), they consult for a part of the citizens. cum to consuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you. metuens pueris (Plaut. Am. 1113), anxious for the children. nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. 772), they fear not even the gods. [So also timeo.] prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 3), have regard for the state. prospicere sedem senectüti (Liv. iv. 49. 14), to provide a habitation for old age. [So also provideo.]

d. A few verbal nouns (as insidiae, ambush; obtemperatio; obedience) rarely take the dative like the corresponding verbs:—

insidiae consuli (Sall. Cat. 32), the plot against the consul (cf. insidior). obtemperatio legibus (Legg. i. 42), obedience to the laws (cf. obtempero). sibi ipsi responsio (De Or. iii. 207), an answer to himself (cf. respondeo).

NOTE. — In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. § 366. a, b).

368. The Dative is used —

1. With the impersonals libet (lubet), it pleases, and licet, it is allowed:—

quod mihi maximē lubet (Fam. i. 8. 3), what most pleases me. quasi tibi non liceret (id. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: —

mihi ipse numquam satisfacio (Fam. i. 1), I never satisfy myself. optimo viro maledicere (Deiot. 28), to speak ill of a most excellent man. pulchrum est benefacere rei püblicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a glorious thing to benefit the state.

NOTE.—These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt as such by the Romans. Thus,—satis officio meo, satis illorum voluntati qui a me hoc petiverunt factum esse arbitrabor (Verr. v. 130), I shall consider that enough has been done for my duty, enough for the wishes of those who asked this of me.

¹ See the Lexicon under caveo, convenio, cupio, însisto, maneo, praeverto, recipio, renuntio, solvo, succedo.

3. With grātificor, grātulor, nūbō, permittō, plaudō, probō, studeō, supplicō, excellō:—

Pompêio se gratificari putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.

grātulor tibi, mī Balbe (id. vi. 12), I congratulate you, my dear Balbus.

tibi permitto respondere (N. D. iii. 4), I give you leave to answer.

mihi plaudo ipse domi (Hor. S. i. 1. 66), I applaud myself at home.

cum inimīcī M. Fontêī vobīs ac populo Romāno minentur, amīcī ac propinquī supplicent vobīs (Font. 35), while the enemies of Marcus Fonteius are threatening you and the Roman people too, while his friends and relatives are beseeching you.

Note.—Misceō and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 413. a. n.). Haereō usually takes the ablative, with or without in, rarely the dative: as,—haerentem capitī corōnam (Hor. S. i. 10. 49), a wreath clinging to the head.

a. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So especially with verbs of contending ($\S 413.b$):—

contendis Homero (Prop. i. 7. 3), you vie with Homer. [In prose: cum Homero.] placitone etiam pugnābis amorī (Aen. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?

tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]

differt sermoni (Hor. S. i. 4. 48), differs from prose. [ā sermone, § 401.]

lateri abdidit ënsem (Aen. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 430.]

For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 428. h.

369. Some verbs ordinarily intransitive may have an Accusative of the direct object along with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 362. a):—

cui cum rex crucem mināretur (Tusc. i. 102), and when the king threatened him with the cross.

Crētēnsibus obsidēs imperāvīt (Manil. 35), he exacted hostages of the Cretans. omnia sibi īgnōscere (Vell. ii. 30), to pardon one's self everything.

Ascanione pater Romanas invidet arces (Aen. iv. 234), does the futher envy Ascanius his Roman citadels? [With invideo this construction is poetic or late.]

a. With the passive voice this dative may be retained:—

qui iam nunc sanguinem meum sibi indulgērī aequum cēnset (Liv. xl. 15. 16), who even now thinks it right that my blood should be granted to him as a favor.

singulīs cēnsēribus dēnāriī trecentī imperātī sunt (Verr. ii. 137), three hundred denarii were exacted of each censor.

Scaevolae concessa est făcundiae virtūs (Quint. xii. 3. 9), to Scaevola has been granted excellence in oratory.

Indirect Object with Compounds

370. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and some with circum, admit the Dative of the indirect object:—

neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. 13), for I do not agree with them.

quantum nātūra hominis pecudibus antecēdit (Off. i. 105), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.

sī sibi ipse consentit (id. i. 5), if he is in accord with himself.

virtūtēs semper voluptātibus inhaerent (Fin. i. 68), virtues are always connected with pleasures.

omnibus negotiis non interfuit solum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.

tempestati obsequi artis est (Fam. i. 9. 21), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.

nec umquam succumbet inimīcīs (Deiot. 36), and he will never yield to his foes.

cum et Brūtus cuilibet ducum praeferendus vidērētur et Vatīnius nūllī nōn esset postferendus (Vell. ii. 69), since Brutus seemed worthy of being put before any of the generals and Vatinius deserved to be put after all of them.

a. In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence, if the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction of the simple verb remains.

Thus in convocat suos, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So hominem interficere, to make way with a man (kill him). But in praeficere imperatorem bello, to put a man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the idea resulting from the composition is suited to an indirect object (see also b, §§ 371, 388. b).

- NOTE 1.—Some of these verbs, being originally transitive, take also a direct object: as,—nē offerāmus nos perīculīs (Off. i. 83), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.

 NOTE 2.—The construction of § 370 is not different in its nature from that of §§ 362, 366, and 367; but the compound verbs make a convenient group.
- **b.** Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative (cf. § 388. b):—¹

nos oppugnat (Fam. i. 1), he opposes us.

quis audeat bene comitatum aggredi (Phil. xii. 25), who would dare encounter a man well attended?

mūnus obire (Lael. 7), to attend to a duty.

1 Such verbs are aggredior, adeō, antecēdō, anteeō, antegredior, conveniō, ineō, obeō, offendō, oppūgnō, praecēdō, subeō.

c. The adjective obvius and the adverb obviam with a verb take the dative:—

sī ille obvius eī futūrus non erat (Mil. 47), if he was not intending to get in his way.

mihi obviam vēnistī (Fam. ii. 16. 3), you came to meet me.

371. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs mentioned in § 370 regularly take a noun with a preposition:

inhaeret in visceribus (Tusc. iv. 24), it remains fixed in the vitals.

homine coniuncto mecum (Tull. 4), a man united to me.

cum hoc concurrit ipse Eumenes (Nep. Eum. 4. 1), with him Eumenes himself engages in combat (runs together).

inscrite oculos in cūriam (Font. 43), fix your eyes on the senate-house.

ignis qui est ob os offusus (Tim. 14), the fire which is diffused before the sight. obicitur contră istorum impetus Macedonia (Font. 44), Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks. [Cf. si quis vobis error obiectus (Caec. 5), if any mistake has been caused you.]

in segetem flamma incidit (Aen. ii. 304), the fire falls upon the standing corn.

Note. — But the usage varies in different authors, in different words, and often in the same word and the same sense. The Lexicon must be consulted for each verb.

372. Intransitive verbs that govern the dative are used *impersonally* in the passive (§ 208. d). The dative is retained (cf. § 365):

cui parci potuit (Liv. xxi. 14), who could be spared?

non modo non invidetur illi aetātī vērum etiam favētur (Off. ii. 45), that age (youth) not only is not envied, but is even favored.

tempori serviendum est (Fam. ix. 7), we must serve the exigency of the occasion.

Note. — In poetry the personal construction is sometimes found: as, — cūr invideor (Hor. A. P. 56), why am I envied?

Dative of Possession

373. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession:—

est mihi domī pater (Ecl. iii. 33), I have a father at home (there is to me). hominī cum deō similitūdō est (Legg. i. 25), man has a likeness to God. quibus opēs nūllae sunt (Sall. Cat. 37), [those] who have no wealth.

Note.—The Genitive or a Possessive with esse emphasizes the possessor; the Dative, the face of possession: as,—liber est meus, the book is mine (and no one's else); est mihi liber, I have a book (among other things).

a. With nomen est, and similar expressions, the name is often put in the Dative by a kind of apposition with the person; but the Nominative is also common:—

- (1) cui Āfricānō fuit cōgnōmen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
- puerō ab inopiā Egeriō inditum nomen (id. i. 34), the name Egerius was given the boy from his poverty.
- (2) puero nomen est Marcus, the boy's name is Marcus (to the boy is, etc.). cui nomen Arethūsa (Verr. iv. 118), [a fount] called Arethusa.
- Note.—In early Latin the dative is usual; Cicero prefers the nominative, Livy the dative; Sallust uses the dative only. In later Latin the genitive also occurs (cf. § 343. d): as,—Q. Metello Macedonici nomen inditum est (Vell. i. 11), to Quintus Metellus the name of Macedonicus was given.
- **b.** Desum takes the dative; so occasionally absum (which regularly has the ablative):—

hōc ūnum Caesarī dēfuit (B.G. iv. 26), this only was lacking to Cæsar. quid huic abesse poterit (De Or. i. 48), what can be wanting to him?

Dative of the Agent

374. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive to denote the person on whom the necessity rests:—

haec võbīs provincia est defendenda (Manil. 14), this province is for you to defend (to be defended by you).

- mihi est pugnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me: cf. mihi est liber, I have a book, § 373. N.).
- a. This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 196).
- Note 1. The Ablative of the Agent with ab (§ 405) is sometimes used with the Second Periphrastic Conjugation when the Dative would be ambiguous or when a stronger expression is desired:—

quibus est ā võbīs consulendum (Manil. 6), for whom you must consult. [Here two datives, quibus and vobīs, would have been ambiguous.]

rem ab omnibus vobis providendam (Rabir. 4), that the matter must be attended to by all of you. [The dative might mean for all of you.]

Note 2.—The Dative of the Agent is either a special use of the Dative of Possession or a development of the Dative of Reference (§ 376).

375. The Dative of the Agent is common with perfect participles (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare with other parts of the verb:—

mihi delīberātum et constitutum est (Leg. Agr. i. 25), I have deliberated and resolved (it has been deliberated by me).

mihi rēs provisa est (Verr. iv. 91), the matter has been provided for by me. sīc dissimillimis bēstiolis commūniter cibus quaeritur (N. D. ii. 123), so by very different creatures food is sought in common.

a. The Dative of the Agent is used by the poets and later writers with almost any passive verb:—

neque cernitur ülli (Aen. i. 440), nor is seen by any.

fēlīx est dicta sorōrī (Ov. Fast. iii. 1. 597), she was called happy by her sister. Aelia Paetina Narcissō fovēbātur (Tac. Ann. xii. 1), Ælia Pætina was favored by Narcissus.

b. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used after videor, seem:—

vidētur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me.

dīs aliter vīsum [est] (Aen. ii. 428), it seemed otherwise to the gods.

videor mihi perspicere ipsīus animum (Fam. iv. 13. 5), I seem (to myself) to see the soul of the man himself.

NOTE. — The verb probare, approve (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 376), which has become so firmly attached that it is often retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent: —

haec sententia et illī et nobīs probabātur (Fam. i. 7. 5), this view met both his

approval and mine (was made acceptable both to him and to me).

hōc consilium plērīsque non probābātur (B. C. i. 72), this plan was not approved by the majority. [But also, consilium ā cunctīs probābātur (id. i. 74).]

Dative of Reference

376. The Dative often depends, not on any particular word, but on the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference).

The dative in this construction is often called the Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage, as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed.

tibi arās (Plaut. Merc. 71), you plough for yourself.

tuās rēs tibi habētō (Plaut. Trin. 266), keep your goods to yourself (formula of divorce).

laudāvit mihi frātrem, he praised my brother (out of regard for me; laudāvit frātrem meum would imply no such motive).

meritos mactavit honores, taurum Neptūno, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollo (Aen. iii. 118), he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.

Note.—In this construction the meaning of the sentence is complete without the dative, which is not, as in the preceding constructions, closely connected with any single word. Thus the Dative of Reference is easily distinguishable in most instances even when the sentence consists of only two words, as in the first example.

377. The Dative of Reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word:

¹ Datīvus commodī aut incommodī.

- iter Poenis vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. M. 75), to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).
- sē in conspectum nautis dedit (Verr. v. 86), he put himself in sight of the sailors (he put himself to the sailors into sight).
- versātur mihi ante oculos (id. v. 123), it comes before my eyes (it comes to me before the eyes).
- 378. The Dative is used of the person from whose point of view an opinion is stated or a situation or a direction is defined.

This is often called the Dative of the Person Judging,¹ but is merely a weakened variety of the Dative of Reference. It is used —

- 1. Of the mental point of view (in my opinion, according to me, etc.):—
 - Plato mihi unus instar est centum milium (Brut. 191), in my opinion (to me)

 Plato alone is worth a hundred thousand.
 - erit ille mihi semper deus (Ecl. i. 7), he will always be a god to me (in my regard).
 - quae est ista servitūs tam clārō hominī (Par. 41), what is that slavery according to the view of this distinguished man?
- 2. Of the local point of view (as you go in etc.). In this use the person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the dative plural:
 - oppidum prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Epīrō (B. C. iii. 80), the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (to those coming, etc.).
 - laevā parte sinum intrantī (Liv. xxvi. 26), on the left as you sail up the gulf (to one entering).
- est urbe egressis tumulus (Aen. ii. 713), there is, as you come out of the city, a mound (to those having come out).
- Note. The Dative of the Person Judging is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by nolens, volens (participles of nolo, volo), or by some similar word:
 - ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cupientibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.
 - ut militibus labos volentibus esset (Iug. 100), that the soldiers might assume the task willingly.
- 379. The Dative of Reference is used idiomatically without any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations:—

quō mihi fortūnam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? unde mihī lapidem (Hor. S. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone? quō tibi, Tillī (id. i. 6. 24), what use for you, Tillius?

a. The dative of reference is sometimes used after interjections:

ei (hei) mihi (Aen. ii. 274), ah me!

vae victis (Liv. v. 48), woe to the conquered.

em tibi, there, take that (there for you)! [Cf. § 380.]

NOTE.—To express FOR—meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of—the ablative with pro is used:—

pro patria morī (Hor. Od. iii. 2. 13), to die for one's country. ego ībo pro tē (Plaut. Most. 1131), I will go instead of you.

Ethical Dative

380. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated.¹

This construction is called the Ethical Dative.² It is really a faded variety of the Dative of Reference.

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor. Ep. i. 8. 15), pray what is Celsus doing? sub sibi servit patri (Plaut. Capt. 5), he serves his own father.

at tibi repente venit mihi Canīnius (Fam. ix. 2), but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Caninius.

hem tibi talentum argenti (Pl. Truc. 60), hark ye, a talent of silver. quid tibi vis, what would you have (what do you wish for yourself)?

Dative of Separation

381. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 401).

Such are compounds of ab, de, ex, and a few of ad: —

aureum eī dētrāxit amiculum (N. D. iii. 83), he took from him his cloak of gold.

hunc mihi terrorem ëripe (Cat. i. 18), take from me this terror.

vitam adulescentibus vis aufert (Cat. M. 71), violence deprives young men of life.

nihîl enim tibi dētrāxit senātus (Fam. i. 5 B), for the senate has taken nothing from you.

nec mihi hunc errorem extorqueri volo (Cat. M. 85), nor do I wish this error wrested from ms.

Note. — The Dative of Separation is a variety of the Dative of Reference. It represents the action as done to the person or thing, and is thus more vivid than the Ablative.

¹ Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together."—As You Like It, iii. 2.

² Datīvus ēthicus.

a. The distinct idea of motion requires the ablative with a preposition—thus generally with names of things (§ 426, 1):—

illum ex periculo eripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged him out of danger.

NOTE. — Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as, — mihi praeda de manibus eripitur (Verr. ii. 1. 142), the booty is wrested from my hands.

Dative of the Purpose or End

382. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected.

This use of the dative, once apparently general, remains in only a few constructions, as follows:—

1. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that for which a thing serves or which it accomplishes, often with another dative of the person or thing affected:—

reī pūblicae clādī sunt (Iug. 85. 43), they are ruin to the state (they are for a disaster to the state).

māgnō ūsuī nostrīs fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men (to our men for great use).

tertiam aciem nostrīs subsidio mīsit (id. i. 52), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.

suis salūtī fuit (id. vii. 50), he was the salvation of his men.

evenit facile quod dis cordi esset (Liv. i. 39), that came to pass easily which was desired by the gods (was for a pleasure [lit. heart] to the gods).

NOTE 1.—This construction is often called the Dative of Service, or the Double Dative construction. The verb is usually sum. The noun expressing the end for which is regularly abstract and singular in number and is never modified by an adjective, except one of degree (mägnus, minor, etc.), or by a genitive.

Note 2.—The word frugi used as an adjective is a dative of this kind:—
cōgis mē dīcere inimīcum Frugi (Font. 39), you compel me to call my enemy Honest.
hominēs satis fortēs et plānē frugī (Verr. iii. 67), men brave enough and thoroughly
honest. Cf. erō frugī bonae (Plaut. Pseud. 468), I will be good for something. [See § 122. b.]

2. The Dative of Purpose of concrete nouns is used in prose in a few military expressions, and with freedom in poetry:—

locum castrīs dēligit (B. G. vii. 16), he selects a site for a camp.

receptui canere, to sound a retreat (for a retreat).

receptui signum (Phil. xiii. 15), the signal for retreat.

optāvit locum rēgnō (Aen. iii. 109), he chose a place for a kingdom.

locum însidiis circumspectăre (Liv. xxi. 53), to look about for a place for an ambush. [Cf. locum sēditionis quaerere (id. iii. 46).]

For the Dative of the Gerundive denoting Purpose, see § 505. b.

Dative with Adjectives

- 383. The Dative is used after Adjectives or Adverbs, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.
 - Note. The dative with certain adjectives is in origin a Dative of Purpose or End.
- 384. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few Adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites:

nihil est tam nătūrae aptum (Lael. 17), nothing is so fitted to nature.

nihil difficile amantī putō (Or. 33), I think nothing hard to a lover.

castris idoneum locum delegit (B. G. i. 49), he selected a place suitable for a camp.

tribūnī nobīs sunt amīcī (Q. Fr. i. 2. 16), the tribunes are friendly to us.

esse propitius potest nēminī (N. D. i. 124), he can be gracious to nobody.

māgnīs autem virīs prosperae semper omnēs rēs (id. ii. 167), but to great men everything is always favorable.

sēdēs huic nostro non importūna sermonī (De Or. iii. 18), a place not unsuitable for this conversation of ours.

cui fundo erat affinis M. Tullius (Tull. 14), to which estate Marcus Tullius was next neighbor.

convenienter nātūrae vīvere (Off. iii. 13), to live in accordance with nature (ὁμολογουμένως τη φύσει).

Note 1.—So, also, in poetic and colloquial use, with idem: as, — invitum qui servat idem facit occidenti (Hor. A. P. 467), he who saves a man against his will does the same as one who kills him.

NOTE 2.—Adjectives of *likeness* are often followed by atque (ac), as. So also the adverbs aeque, pariter, similiter, etc. The pronoun idem has regularly atque or a relative:—

sī parem sapientiam habet ac formam (Plaut. Mil. 1251), if he has sense equal to his beauty (like as his beauty).

të suspicor eisdem rebus quibus më ipsum commoveri (Cat. M. 1), I suspect you are disturbed by the same things by which I am.

- 385. Other constructions are sometimes found where the dative might be expected:—
- a. Adjectives of fitness or use take oftener the Accusative with ad to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of persons:—

aptus ad rem mīlitārem, fit for a soldier's duty.

locus ad insidias aptior (Mil. 53), a place fitter for lying in wait.

nobis utile est ad hanc rem (cf. Ter. And. 287), it is of use to us for this thing.

¹ Adjectives of this kind are accommodātus, aptus; amīcus, inimīcus, īnfestus, invīsus, molestus; idōneus, opportūnus, proprius; ūtilis, inūtilis; affīnis, fīnitimus, propinquus, vīcīnus; pār, dispār, similis, dissimilis; iūcundus, grātus; nōtus, īgnōtus, and others.

b. Adjectives and nouns of inclination and the like may take the Accusative with in or ergā:—

comis in uxorem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2. 133), kind to his wife.

dīvīna bonitās ergā hominēs (N. D. ii. 60), the divine goodness towards men.

dē benevolentiā quam quisque habeat ergā nos (Off. i. 47), in regard to each man's good will which he has towards us.

grātiorem mē esse in tē (Fam. xi. 10), that I am more grateful to you.

- c. Some adjectives of *likeness*, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive:—1
 - quod ut illi proprium ac perpetuum sit... optäre debetis (Manil. 48), which you ought to pray may be secure (his own) and lasting to him. [Dative.]
 - fuit hoc quondam proprium populi Romani (id. 32), this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people. [Genitive.]
 - cum utrique sis maxime necessarius (Att. ix. 7 A), since you are especially bound to both. [Dative.]
 - procurator aeque utriusque necessarius (Quinct. 86), an agent alike closely connected with both. [Genitive.]
- 1. The genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns:
 - amīcus Ciceroni, friendly to Cicero. But, Ciceronis amīcus, a friend of Cicero; and even, Ciceronis amīcissimus, a very great friend of Cicero.
 - crēticus et êius aequalis paean (Or. 215), the cretic and its equivalent the pæan. hī erant affinēs istīus (Verr. ii. 36), these were this man's fellows.
- 2. After similis, like, the genitive is more common in early writers. Cicero regularly uses the genitive of persons, and either the genitive or the dative of things. With personal pronouns the genitive is regular (meī, tuī, etc.), and also in vērī similis, probable:—

dominī similis es (Ter. Eun. 496), you're like your master (your master's like). ut essēmus similēs deōrum (N. D. i. 91), that we might be like the gods.

est similis mâiorum suom (Ter. Ad. 411), he's like his ancestors.

patris similis esse (Off. i. 121), to be like his father.

sīmia quam similis turpissima bēstia nobīs (N. D. i. 97, quoted from Enn.), how like us is that wretched beast the ape!

sī enim hōc illī simile sit, est illud huic (id. i. 90), for if this is like that, that is like this.

Note. — The genitive in this construction is not objective like those in § 349, but possessive (cf. § 343).

For the Dative or Accusative with propior, proximus, propius, proximē, see § 432. a.

1 Such are aequālis, affīnis, alienus, amīcus, cognātus, commūnis, consanguineus, contrārius, dispār, familiāris, fīnitimus, inimīcus, necessārius, pār, pecūliāris, propinquus, proprius (regularly genitive), sacer, similis, superstes, vīcīnus.

ACCUSATIVE CASE

386. The Accusative originally served to connect the noun more or less loosely with the verb-idea, whether expressed by a verb proper or by a verbal noun or adjective. Its earliest use was perhaps to repeat the verb-idea as in the Cognate Accusative (run a race, fight a battle, see § 390). From this it would be a short step to the Factitive Accusative (denoting the result of an act, as in make a table, drill a hole, cf. § 273. N.¹). From this last could easily come the common accusative (of Affecting, break a table, plug a hole, see § 387. a). Traces of all these uses appear in the language, and the loose connection of noun with verb-idea is seen in the use of stems in composition (cf. § 265.3).¹ It is impossible, however, to derive the various constructions of the accusative with certainty from any single function of that case.

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

I. Primary Object:

2. Effect of the Action { Thing produced (§ 387. a). Cognate Accusative (§ 390).

II. Two Accusatives:

1. Predicate Accusative (Of Naming etc.) (§ 393).

2. Of Asking or Teaching (§ 396).

3. Of Concealing (§ 396. c).

1. Adverbial (§ 397. a).

2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 397. b).

3. Of Extent and Duration (§§ 423, 425).

4. Of Exclamation (§ 397. d).

5. Subject of Infinitive (§ 397. e).

Direct Object

- 387. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 274).
- a. The Accusative of the Direct Object denotes (1) that which is directly affected, or (2) that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb:—
 - (1) Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Cæsar.
 - (2) aedem facere, to make a temple. [Cf. proelium pügnäre, to fight a battle, § 390.]

Note.—There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used intransitively or absolutely. Thus timeo, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimicum timeo, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in noil timere, don't be afraid. Again, many verbs are transitive in one sense and intransitive in another: as, — Helvētios superāvērant Romānī, the Romans overcame the Helvetians; but nihil superābat, nothing remained (was left over). So also many verbs commonly intransitive may be used transitively with a slight change of meaning: as, — rīdēs, you are laughing; but mē rīdēs, you're laughing at me.

¹ Compare armiger, armor-bearer, with arma gerere, to bear arms; fidicen, lyre-player, with fidibus canere, to (play on) sing to the lyre. Compare also istanc tactio (Plaut.), the [act of] touching her, with istanc tangere, to touch her (§ 388. d. n.²).

b. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative (§ 275):—

Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Cæsar.

Caesar ā Brūtō interfectus est, Cæsar was killed by Brutus.

domum aedificat, he builds a house.

domus aedificatur, the house is building (being built).

- 388. Certain special verbs require notice.
- a. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing feeling, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive:—

meum căsum luctumque doluerunt (Sest. 145), they grieved at my calamity and sorrow.

sī non Acrisium rīsissent Iuppiter et Venus (Hor. Od. iii. 16. 5), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed at Acrisius.

ridetur ab omni conventu (Hor. S. i. 7. 22), he is laughed at by the whole assembly.

For the Cognate Accusative with verbs of taste, smell, and the like, see § 390. a. Note. — Some verbs commonly intransitive may be used transitively (especially in poetry) from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that take the accusative: — gemēns īgnōminiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning at the disgrace. [Cf. doleō.] festīnāre fugam (Aen. iv. 575), to hasten their flight. [Cf. accelerō.] comptōs ārsit crīnīs (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 13), she burned with love for his well-combed locks. [Cf. adamō.]

b. Verbs of motion, compounds of circum, trans, and practer, and a few others, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. $\S 370. b$):—

mortem obire, to die (to meet death).

consulatum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), they enter upon the consulship.

nëminem convent (Fam. ix. 14), I met no one.

si insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.

transire flumen (id. ii. 23), to cross the river (cf. § 395).

cives qui circumstant senatum (Cat. i. 21), the citizens who stand about the senate.

Note. — Among such verbs are some compounds of ad, in, per, and sub.

c. The accusative is used after the impersonals decet, dedecet, delectat, invat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit:—

ita ut võs decet (Plaut. Most. 729), so as besits you.

mē pedibus delectat claudere verba (Hor. S. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.

nisi mē fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).

iūvit mē tibi tuās litterās profuisse (Fam. v. 21. 8), it pleased me that your literary studies had profited you.

të non praeterit (Fam. i. 8. 2), it does not escape your notice.

Note 1.—So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose: as,—latet plērosque (Plin. N. H. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.

Note 2. — These verbs are merely ordinary transitives with an idiomatic signification. Hence most of them are also used personally.

Note 3. — Decet and latet sometimes take the dative: —

ita nobis decet (Ter. Ad. 928), thus it befits us.

hostique Roma latet (Sil. It. xii. 614), and Rome lies hidden from the foe.

d. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are:—

ferire foedus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim). vincere iūdicium (sponsionem, rem, hoc), to prevail on a trial, etc. [As if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Aen. vi. 688.]

aequor nāvigāre (Aen. i. 67), to sail the sea. [As if it were trānsīre, § 388. b.] maria aspera iūrō (id. vi. 351), I swear by the rough seas (cf. id. vi. 324).

[The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]

noctis dormire, to sleep [whole] nights (to spend in sleep).

Note 1.—These accusatives are of various kinds. The last example approaches the cognate construction (cf. the second example under § 390).

Note 2. — In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from transitive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative:—

quid tibi istanc tāctiō est (Plaut. Poen. 1308), what business have you to touch her? [Cf. tango.]

mīrābundī bēstiam (Ap. Met. iv. 16), full of wonder at the creature. [Cf. mīror.] vītābundus castra (Liv. xxv. 13), trying to avoid the camp. [Cf. vītō.]

389. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely, having their natural object in the ablative with de (§ 273. N. 2): —

priusquam Pomponius de êius adventū cognosceret (B. C. iii. 101), before Pomponius could learn of his coming. [Cf. êius adventū cognito, his arrival being discovered.

For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 354. b. For the Accusative after the impersonal Gerundive with esse, see § 500. 3.

Cognate Accusative

390. An intransitive verb often takes the Accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner.

This construction is called the Cognate Accusative or Accusative of Kindred Signification: —

tūtiorem vitam vivere (Verr. ii. 118), to live a safer life.

tertiam iam aetātem hominum vīvēbat (Cat. M. 31), he was now living the third generation of men.

servitūtem servīre, to be in slavery.

coire societatem, to [go together and] form an alliance.

S. Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take a cognate accusative of the quality:—

vinum redolens (Phil. ii. 68), smelling [of] wine.

herbam mella sapiunt (Plin. H. N. xi. 18), the honey tastes [of] grass. olēre malitiam (Rosc. Com. 20), to have the odor of malice.

- Cordubae nătis poetis, pingue quiddam sonantibus atque peregrinum (Arch. 26), to poets born at Cordova, whose speech had a somewhat thick and foreign accent.
- b. The cognate accusative is often loosely used by the poets:—
 huic errori similem [errorem] insanire (Hor. S. ii. 3. 62), to suffer a delusion
 like this.

saltāre Cyclopa (id. i. 5. 63), to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing). Bacchānālia vīvere (Iuv. ii. 3), to live in revellings.

Amaryllica resonare (Ecl. i. 5), to receno [the name of] Amaryllic.

intonuit laevum (Aen. ii. 693), it thundered on the left.

dulce ridentem, dulce loquentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 23), sweetly smiling, sweetly prattling.

acerba tuens (Aen. ix. 794), looking fiercely. [Cf. Eng. "to look daggers."] torvum clamat (id. vii. 399), he cries harshly.

c. A neuter pronoun or an adjective of indefinite meaning is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 214. d, 397. a):—

Empedocles multa alia peccat (N. D. i. 29), Empedocles commits many other errors.

ego illud adsentior Theophrasto (De Or. iii. 184), in this I agree with Theophrastus.

multum to ista fefellit opinio (Verr. ii. 1. 88), you were much deceived in this expectation (this expectation deceived you much).

plūs valeō, I have more strength.

plürimum potest, he is strongest.

quid me ista laedunt (Leg. Agr. ii. 32), what harm do those things do me? hoc te moneo, I give you this warning (cf. d. n. 1).

id laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. d. m. 1).

quid moror, why do I delay?

quae homines arant, navigant, aedificant (Sall. Cat. ii. 7), what men do in ploughing, sailing, and building.

d. So in many common phrases: -

si quid ille se velit (B. G. i. 34), if he should want emything of him (if he should want him in anything).

numquid, Geta, aliud mē vis (Ter. Ph. 151), can I do anything more for you, Geta (there is nothing you want of me, is there)? [A common form of leave-taking.]

quid est quod, etc., why is it that, etc.? [Cf. hoc erat quod (Aen. ii. 664), was it for this that, etc.?]

Note 1.—In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction:—

in hoc eodem peccat, he errs in this same point.

bonis rebus lactari, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, de, or ex.]

de testamento monere, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, § 351.]

offici admonere, to remind one of his duty. [Also: de officio.]

NOTE 2.—In some of these cases the connection of the accusative with the verb has so faded out that the words have become real adverbs: as,—multum, plūs, plūrimum; plērumque, for the most part, generally; cēterum, cētera, for the rest, otherwise, but; prīmum, first; nihil, by no means, not at all; aliquid, somewhat; quid, why; facile, easily. So in the comparative of adverbs (§ 218). But the line cannot be sharply drawn, and some of the examples under b may be classed as adverbial.

Two Accusatives

391. Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

Predicate Accusative

- 392. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative.
- 393. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object:
 - ō Spartace, quem enim tē potius appellem (Phil. xiii. 22), O Spartacus, for what else shall I call you (than Spartacus)?

Ciceronem consulem creare, to elect Cicero consul.

mē augurem nomināvērunt (Phil. ii. 4), they nominated me for augur.

cum grātiās ageret quod sē consulem fēcisset (De Or. ii. 268), when he thanked him because he had made him consul (supported his candidacy).

hominem prae sē nēminem putāvit (Rosc. Am. 135), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.

ducem se praebuit (Vat. 33), he affered himself as a leader.

Note. — The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as, — homines mîtis reddidit et mănsuetos (Inv. i. 2), has made men mild and gentle.

a. In changing from the active voice to the passive, the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 284):—

rēx ab suīs appellātur (B. G. viii. 4), he is called king by his subjects. [Active: suī eum rēgem appellant.]

Secondary Object

- 394. The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used (along with the direct object) to denote something more remotely affected by the action of the verb.
- 395. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition:—
 - Caesar Germānos flumen trāicit (B. C. i. 83), Cæsar throws the Germans across the river.
 - idem iūs iūrandum adigit Afrānium (id. i. 76), he exacts the same oath from Afranius.
 - quōs Pompêius omnia sua praesidia circumdūxit (id. iii. 61), whom Pompey conducted through all his garrison.
- NOTE 1.—This construction is common only with traduco, traicio, and transporto. The preposition is sometimes repeated with compounds of trans, and usually with compounds of the other prepositions. The ablative is also used:
 - donec res suas trans Halyn flumen traicerent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Halys.
 - (exercitus) Pado traiectus Cremonam (id. xxi. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 429. a).
- Note 2.— The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb: as,—Belgae Rhēnum trāductī sunt (B. G. ii. 4), the Belgians were led over the Rhine.
- NOTE 3.—The double construction indicated in § 395 is possible only when the force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the compound, the verb governing the direct, and the preposition the secondary object.

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. In this case the compound verb is transitive solely by virtue of its prepositional part and can have but one accusative,—the same which was formerly the secondary object, but which now becomes the direct. So trāiciō comes to mean either (1) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river etc.):—

gladio hominem traiecit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iacio has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trans, and to tell the manner of the act.]

Rhodanum trāiēcit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iaciō has become simply a verb of motion, and trāiciō is hardly distinguishable from trānseō.]

In these examples hominem and Rhodanum, which would be secondary objects if traiecit were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative:—

homō trāiectus est gladiō, the man was pierced with a sword.

Rhodanus trāiectus est, the Rhone was crossed.

The poetical traiectus lora (Aen. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions: (1) eum traiecit lora, he rove thongs through him, and (2) eum traiecit loris, he pierced him with thongs. In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (lora) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (eum) is made the subject.

¹ Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. traiecto fune (Aen. v. 488).

396. Some verbs of asking and teaching may take two accusatives, one of the Person (direct object), and the other of the Thing (secondary object):—

mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.

ōtium dīvōs rogat (Hor. Od. ii. 16. 1), he prays the gods for rest.

hace practōrem postulābās (Tull. 39), you demanded this of the prætor.

aedīlīs populum rogāre (Liv. vi. 42), to ask the people [to elect] ædiles.

docēre puerōs elementa, to teach children their A B C's.

Note. — This construction is found in classical authors with ōrō, poscō, reposcō, rogō, interrogō, flāgitō, doceō.

a. Some verbs of asking take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), quaerō (ex, ab, dē); usually poscō (ab), flāgitō (ab), postulō (ab), and occasionally others:—

pēcem ab Romānīs petierunt (B. G. ii. 13), they sought peace from the Romans. quod quaesīvit ex mē P. Apulêius (Phil. vi. 1), what Publius Apuleius asked of me.

b. With the passive of some verbs of asking or teaching, the person or the thing may be used as subject (cf. c. n. 2):—

Caesar sententiam rogātus est, Cæsar was asked his opinion. id ab eō flāgitābātur (B. C. i. 71), this was urgently demanded of him.

Note. — The accusative of the thing may be retained with the passive of rogo, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs:—

fuerant hoc rogātī (Cael. 64), they had been asked this.

poscor meum Laelapa (Ov. M. vii. 771), I am asked for my Lælaps.

Cicero cuncta edoctus (Sall. Cat. 45), Cicero, being informed of everything. But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the thing becomes the subject nominative, and the accusative of the person is put in the ablative with a preposition: as,—nē postulantur quidem vīrēs ā senectūte (Cat. M. 34), strength is not even expected of an old man (asked from old age).

- c. The verb celo, conceal, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateo, lie hid, an accusative of the person:
 - non te celavi sermonem T. Ampi (Fam. ii. 16. 3), I did not conceal from you the talk of Titus Ampius.
 - nec latuere doli fratrem Iunonis (Aen. i. 130), nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother.
- NOTE 1.—The accusative of the person with lateo is late or poetical (§ 388. c. n. 1). NOTE 2.—All the double constructions indicated in § 396 arise from the wavering meaning of the verbs. Thus doceo means both to show a thing, and to instruct a person; celo, to keep a person in the dark, and to hide a thing; rogo, to question a person, and to ask a question or a thing. Thus either accusative may be regarded as the direct object, and so become the subject of the passive (cf. b above), but for convenience the accusative of the thing is usually called secondary.

Idiomatic Uses

- 397. The Accusative has the following special uses:—
- a. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases (Adverbial Accusative):—

id temporis, at that time; id (istuc) aetātis, at that age.

id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative).

meam vicem, on my part.

bonam partem, in a great measure; maximam partem, for the most part. virile (muliebre) secus, of the male (female) sex (probably originally in apposition).

quod sī, but if (as to which, if); quod nisi, if not.

b. The so-called synecdochical or Greek Accusative, found in poetry and later Latin, is used to denote the part affected:—

caput nectentur (Aen. v. 309), their heads shall be bound (they shall be bound about the head).

ardentis oculos suffecti sanguine et igni (id. ii. 210), their glaring eyes bloodshot and blazing with fire (suffused as to their eyes with blood and fire). nūda genū (id. i. 320), with her knee bare (bare as to the knee).

femur trāgulā ictus (Liv. xxi. 7. 10), wounded in the thigh by a dart.

Note. — This construction is also called the Accusative of Specification.

c. In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ 156. a):

inūtile ferrum cingitur (Aen. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel.

nodō sinūs collēcta fluentīs (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered in a knot.

umeros insternor pelle leonis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin.

protinus induitur faciem cultumque Dianae (Ov. M. ii. 425), forthwith she assumes the shape and garb of Diana.

d. The Accusative is used in Exclamations:—

ō fortūnātam rem pūblicam, O fortunate republic! [Cf. ō fortūnāta mora (Phil. xiv. 31), oh, happy death! (§ 339. a).]

ō mē infēlicem (Mil. 102), oh, unhappy I!

mē miserum, ah, wretched me!

ēn' quattuor ārās (Ecl. v. 65), lo, four altars!

ellum (= em illum), there he is! [Cf. § 146. a. n. 2.]

eccos (= ecce eos), there they are, look at them!

pro deum fidem, good heavens (O protection of the gods)!

hocine saeclum (Ter. Ad. 304), O this generation!

huncine hominem (Verr. v. 62), this man, good heavens!

Note 1.—Such expressions usually depend upon some long-forgotten verb. The substantive is commonly accompanied by an adjective. The use of -ne in some cases suggests an original question, as in quid? what? why? tell me.

Note 2.—The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are:—

salūtem (sc. dīcit) (in addressing a letter), greeting.

mē dīus fidius (sc. adiuvet), so help me heaven (the god of faith).

unde mihī lapidem (Hor. S. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone?

quō mihi fortūnam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? [No verb thought of.]

e. The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative:—

intellego të sapere (Fam. vii. 32. 3), I perceive that you are wise.

eās rēs iactārī nolēbat (B. G. i. 18), he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed.

NOTE. — This construction is especially common with verbs of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (§ 580).

f. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause:—

deserunt tribunal . . . manus intentantes, causam discordiae et initium armorum (Tac. Ann. i. 27), they abandon the tribunal shaking their fists, — a cause of dissension and the beginning of war.

Note. — This construction is an extension (under Greek influence) of a usage more nearly within the ordinary rules, such as, — Eumenem prodidere Antiocho, pacis mercedem (Sall. Ep. Mith. 8), they betrayed Eumenes to Antiochus, the price of peace. [Here Eumenes may be regarded as the price, although the real price is the betrayal.]

For the Accusative of the End of Motion, see § 427.2; for the Accusative of Duration of Time and Extent of Space, see §§ 423, 425; for the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 220.

ABLATIVE CASE

398. Under the name Ablative are included the meanings and, in part, the forms of three cases,—the Ablative proper, expressing the relation from; the Locative, in; and the Instrumental, with or by. These three cases were originally not wholly distinct in meaning, and their confusion was rendered more certain (1) by the development of meanings that approached each other and (2) by phonetic decay, by means of which these cases have become largely identical in form. Compare, for the first, the phrases ā parte dexterā, on the right; quam ob causam, from which cause; ad fāmam, at (in consequence of) the report; and, for the second, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in -ē of the fifth declension (§ 96), and the loss of the original -d of the ablative (§ 49. e; cf. §§ 43. n. 1, 92. f, 214. a. n.).

The relation of FROM includes separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison; that of WITH or BY, accompaniment, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price; that of IN or AT, place, time, circumstance. This classification according to the original cases (to which, however, too great a degree of certainty should not be attached) is set forth in the following table:—

¹ Thus the Ablative of Cause may be, at least in part, of Instrumental origin, and the Ablative Absolute appears to combine the Instrumental and the Locative.

- I. Ablative Proper (from) (Separative):
- 1. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 400).
- 2. Of Source (participles of origin etc.) (§ 403).
- 3. Of Cause (laboro, exsilio, etc.) (§ 404).
- 4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§ 405).
- 5. Of Comparison (THAN) (§ 406).
- 1. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument (§ 408 ff.).
- 2. Of Object of the Deponents utor etc. (§ 410).
- 3. Of Accompaniment (with cum) (§ 413).
- II. Instrumental Ablative (with):
- 4. Of Degree of Difference (§ 414).
- 5. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 415).
- 6. Of Price and Exchange (§ 416).
- 7. Of Specification (§ 418).8. Ablative Absolute (§ 419).
- III. Locative Ablative (in, on, at):
- 1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 421).
 - 2. Of Time and Circumstance (§ 423).
- 399. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions from; in, at; with, by:—

liberare metū, to deliver from fear. excultus doctrină, trained in learning. hōc ipsō tempore, at this very time. caecus avāritiā, blind with avarice. occisus gladio, slain by the sword.

USES OF THE ABLATIVE PROPER

Ablative of Separation

- 400. Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative.
- 401. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, take the Ablative (sometimes with ab or ex):—

oculis se privavit (Fin. v. 87), he deprived himself of eyes.

omnī Galliā Romānīs interdicit (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.

eī aquā et īgnī interdicitur (Vell. ii. 45), he is debarred the use of fire and water. [The regular formula of banishment.]

voluptātibus carēre (Cat. M. 7), to lack enjoyments.

non egeo medicīnā (Lael. 10), I want no physic.

levāmur superstitione, līberāmur mortis metū (Fin. i. 63), we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death.

solūtī ā cupiditātibus (Leg. Agr. i. 27), freed from desires.

multos ex his incommodis pecunia se liberasse (Verr. v. 23), that many have freed themselves by money from these inconveniences.

For the Genitive with verbs of separation and want, see § 356. N.

- 402. Verbs compounded with ā, ab, dē, ex, (1) take the simple Ablative when used figuratively; but (2) when used literally to denote actual separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (§ 426.1):—
 - (1) conatu desistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt. desine communibus locis (Acad. ii. 80), quit commonplaces.

abīre magistrātū, to leave one's office.

abstinēre iniūriā, to refrain from wrong.

- (2) ā proposito aberrare (Fin. v. 83), to wander from the point.
- dē provinciā dēcēdere (Verr. ii. 48), to withdraw from one's province.
- ab iure abire (id. ii. 114), to go outside of the law.
- ex civitate excessere (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf. finibus suis excesserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.]
- ā māgnō dēmissum nōmen Iūlō (Aen. i. 288), a name descended (sent down) from great Iulus.

For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 381. For the Ablative of the actual place whence in idiomatic expressions, see §§ 427.1, 428.f.

a. Adjectives denoting freedom and want are followed by the ablative: —

urbs nūda praesidio (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence.

immunis militia (Liv. i. 43), free of military service.

plēbs orba tribūnīs (Leg. iii. 9), the people deprived of tribunes.

Note. — A preposition sometimes occurs: —

ā culpā vacuus (Sall. Cat. 14), free from blame.

līberī ā dēliciīs (Leg. Agr. i. 27), free from luxuries.

Messāna ab hīs rebus vacua atque nūda est (Verr. iv. 3), Messana is empty and bare of these things.

For the Genitive with adjectives of want, see § 349. a.

Ablative of Source and Material

- 403. The Ablative (usually with a preposition) is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists:—
 - 1. Source:—

Rhēnus oritur ex Lepontiis (B. G. iv. 10), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii.

ab his sermō oritur (Lael. 5), the conversation is begun by (arises from) them. cûius rationis vim atque ūtilitātem ex illo caelestī Epicūrī volūmine accēpimus (N. D. i. 43), of this reasoning we have learned the power and advantage from that divine book of Epicurus.

suāvitātem odorum quī afflārentur ē floribus (Cat. M. 59), the sweetness of

the odors which breathed from the flowers.

2. Material: --

erat tötus ex frande et mendāciō factus (Clu. 72), he was entirely made up of fraud and falsehood.

valvās māgnificentiōrēs, ex auro atque ebore perfectiorēs (Verr. iv. 124), more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.

factum de cautibus antrum (Ov. M. i. 575), a cave formed of rocks.

templum de marmore ponam (Georg. iii. 13), I'll build a temple of marble.

NOTE 1.—In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

Nore 2.—The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source. For the Genitive of Material, see § 344.

a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition:—1

Iove nātus et Mâiā (N. D. iii. 56), son of Jupiter and Maia.

ēdite rēgibus (Hor. Od. i. 1. 1), descendant of kings.

quō sanguine crētus (Aen. ii. 74), born of what blood.

genitae Pandione (Ov. M. vi. 666), daughters of Pandion.

Note 1.—A preposition (ab, dē, ex) is usually expressed with pronouns, with the name of the mother, and often with that of other ancestors:—

ex më hic natus non est sed ex fratre meo (Ter. Ad. 40), this is not my son, but my brother's (not born from me, etc.).

cum ex utrăque [uxore] filius nătus esset (De Or. i. 183), each wife having had a son (when a son had been born of each wife).

Bēlus et omnēs ā Bēlo (Aen. i. 730), Belus and all his descendants.

Note 2.—Rarely, the place of birth is expressed by the ablative of source: as,—desideravit C. Fleginatem Placentia, A. Granium Puteolis (B. C. iii. 71), he lost Caius Fleginas of Placentia, Aulus Granius of Puteoli.

NOTE 3.—The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative alone: as,—Q. Verrem Römiliä (Verr. i. 23), Quintus Verres of the Romilian tribe.

5. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are constare, consistere, and contineri. But with constare, ex is more common:—

domūs amoenitās non aedificio sed silvā constābat (Nep. Att. 13), the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.

ex animo constamus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), we consist of soul and body. vita corpore et spiritu continetur (Marc. 28), life consists of body and spirit.

c. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with facere, fieri, and similar words, in the sense of do with, become of:—quid hōc homine faciātis (Verr. ii. 1. 42), what are you going to do with this man?

quid Tulliola mea fiet (Fam. xiv. 4. 3), what will become of my dear Tullia? quid të futurum est (Verr. ii. 155), what will become of you?

¹ As nātus, satus, čditus, genitus, ertus, prēgnātus, generātus, crētus, creātus, oriundus.

² The ablative with consistere and continers is probably locative in origin (cf. § 431).

d. The Ablative of Material with ex, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun:—

non pauca pocula ex auro (Verr. iv. 62), not a few cups of gold. scopulis pendentibus antrum (Aen. i. 166), a cave of hanging rocks.

For Ablative of Source instead of Partitive Genitive, see § 346. c.

Ablative of Cause

404. The Ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express Cause:—1

neglegentia plectimur (Lael. 85), we are chastised for negligence.

gubernātoris ars ūtilitāte non arte laudātur (Fin. i. 42), the pilot's skill is: praised for its service, not its skill.

cerțis de causis, for cogent reasons.

ex vulnere aeger (Rep. ii. 38), disabled by (from) a wound.

mare ā sole lucet (Acad. ii. 105), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).

- a. The Ablative of Cause without a preposition is used with laboro-(also with ex), exsilio, exsulto, triumpho, lacrimo, ardeo:
 - doleō tē aliīs malīs labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills. [Cf. ex aere aliēnō labōrāre (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (from another's money).]
 - exsultāre laetitiā, triumphāre gaudiō coepit (Clu. 14), she began to exult in gladness, and triumph in joy.
 - exsiluī gaudiō (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy. [Cf. lacrimō gaudiō (Ter. Ad. 409), I weep for joy.]

ārdēre dolore et īrā (Att. ii. 19. 5), to be on fire with pain and anger.

For gaudeo and glorior, see § 431.

- **b.** The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the object exciting the emotion often by ob² or propter with the accusative:
 - non ob praedam aut spoliandi cupidine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.
 - amīcitia ex sē et propter sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), friendship must be sought of and for itself.

Note.—But these constructions are often confused: as,—pārēre lēgibus propter metum (Par. 34), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equivalent to "the terrors of the law," and hence propter is used, though the ablative would be more natural.]

² Originally a mercantile use: cf. ob decem minās, for the price of ten minæ.

¹ The cause, in the ablative, is originally source, as is shown by the use of ab, de, ex; but when the accusative with ad, ob, is used, the idea of cause arises from nearness. Occasionally it is difficult to distinguish between cause and means (which is the old Instrumental case) or circumstance (which is either the Locative or the Instrumental).

c. The ablatives causa and gratia, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement:—

eā causā, on account of this; quā grātiā (Ter. Eun. 99), for what purpose? meā causā, for my sake; meā grātiā (Plaut.), for my sake.

ex meā et reī pūblicae causā, for my own sake and the republic's.

praedictionis causa (N. D. iii. 5), by way of prophecy.

exemplī grātiā (verbī grātiā), for example.

sui pūrgāndi grātiā, for the sake of clearing themselves.

Note. — But grātiā with possessives in this use is rare.

Ablative of Agent

- 405. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with a or ab:
 - laudātur ab hīs, culpātur ab illīs (Hor. S. i. 2. 11), he is praised by these, blamed by those.
 - ab animo tuo quidquid agitur id agitur a te (Tusc. i. 52), whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.
 - ā fīliīs in iūdicium vocātus est (Cat. M. 22), he was brought to trial by his sons. cum ā cūnctō cōnsessū plausus esset multiplex datus (id. 64), when great applause had been given by the whole audience.
 - në virtus ab audăciă vinceretur (Sest. 92), that valor might not be overborne by audacity. [Audăcia is in a manner personified.]
- Note 1.—This construction is developed from the Ablative of Source. The agent is conceived as the source or author of the action.
- Note 2.—The ablative of the agent (which requires a or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of instrument, which has no preposition (§ 409). Thus occīsus gladio, slain by a sword; but, occīsus ab hoste, slain by an enemy.
- NOTE 3.— The ablative of the agent is commonest with nouns denoting persons, but it occurs also with names of things or qualities when these are conceived as performing an action and so are partly or wholly personified, as in the last example under the rule.
- a. The ablative of the agent with ab is sometimes used after intransitive verbs that have a passive sense:—

perire ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.

- b. The personal agent, when considered as instrument or means, is often expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive:
 - ab exploratoribus certior factus est (B. G. i. 21), he was informed by scouts (in person). But,—
 - per exploratores Caesar certior factus est (id. i. 12), Cæsar was informed by (means of) scouts.
 - ēlautae operā Neptūnī (Plaut. Rud. 699), washed clean by the services of Neptune. non meā operā ēvēnit (Ter. Hec. 228), it hasn't happened through me (by my exertions). [Cf. êius operā, B. G. v. 27.]

Note 1.—The ablative of means or instrument is often used instead of the ablative of agent, especially in military phrases: as,—haec excubitoribus tenēbantur (B. G. vii. 69), these (redoubts) were held by means of sentinels.

Note 2.—An animal is sometimes regarded as the means or instrument, sometimes as the agent. Hence both the simple ablative and the ablative with ab occur:—equō vehī, to ride on horseback (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not ab equō.] clipeōs ā mūribus esse dērōsōs (Div. i. 99), that the shields were gnawed by mice.

For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 374.

Ablative of Comparison

406. The Comparative degree is often followed by the Ablative 1 signifying than:—

Cato est Cicerone eloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.

quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 5), what more burdened with toil than we two?

- vilius argentum est auro, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less precious than gold, gold than virtue.
- a. The idiomatic ablatives opinione, spē, solito, dicto, aequo, crēdibili, and iūsto are used after comparatives instead of a clause:—
 celerius opinione (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think.
 sērius spē omnium (Liv. xxvi. 26), later than all hoped (than the hope of all).
 amnis solito citatior (id. xxiii. 19. 11), a stream swifter than its wont.
 gravius aequo (Sall. Cat. 51), more seriously than was right.
- 407. The comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case:

 non callidior es quam hic (Rosc. Am. 49), you are not more cunning than he. contionibus accommodatior est quam indiciis (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assemblies than for courts.
 - misericordia dignior quam contumelia (Pison. 32), more worthy of pity than of disgrace.
- a. The construction with quam is required when the first of the things compared is not in the Nominative or Accusative.
- Note 1.— There are several limitations on the use of the ablative of comparison, even when the first of the things compared is in the nominative or accusative. Thus the quam construction is regularly used (1) when the comparative is in agreement with a genitive, dative, or ablative: as,—senex est eð meliðre condicione quam adulēscēms (Cat. M. 68), an old man is in this respect in a better position than a young man; and (2) when the second member of the comparison is modified by a clause: as,—minor fuit aliquanto is qui primus fabulam dedit quam ei qui, etc. (Brut. 73), he who first presented a play was somewhat younger than those who, etc.
- ¹ This is a branch of the Ablative of Separation. The object with which anything is compared is the starting-point from which we reckon. Thus, "Cieero is eloquent"; but, starting from him, we come to Cato, who is "more so than he."

- Note 2.—The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires quam: as,—pāne egeō iam mellītīs potiore placentīs (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 11), I now want bread better than honey-cakes.
- Note 3.—Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative: as,—rex erat Aeneas nobis, quo iustior alter nec, etc. (Aen. i. 544), Æneas was our king, than whom no other [was] more righteous.
- b. In sentences expressing or implying a general negative the ablative (rather than quam) is the regular construction when the first member of the comparison is in the nominative or accusative:
 - nihil dētestābilius dēdecore, nihil foedius servitūte (Phil. iii. 36), nothing is more dreadful than disgrace, nothing viler than slavery.
 - nēminem esse cāriōrem tē (Att. x. 8 A. 1), that no one is dearer than you.
- c. After the comparatives plus, minus, amplius, longius, without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case:
 - plüs septingenti capti (Liv. xli. 12), more than seven hundred were taken. [Nominative.]
 - plūs tertiā parte interfectā (B. G. iii. 6), more than a third part being slain.

 [Ablative Absolute.]
 - aditus in lätitüdinem nõn amplius ducentõrum pedum relinquebatur (id. ii. 29), an approach of not more than two hundred feet in width was left. [Genitive of Measure: § 345. b.]
- Note. The noun takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative, which is in a sort of apposition: "seven hundred were taken [and] more."
- d. Alius is sometimes followed by the ablative in poetic and colloquial use; in formal prose it is followed by ac (atque), et, more rarely by nisi, quam:
 - nec quicquam aliud libertate communi (Fam. xi. 2), nothing else than the common liberty.
 - alius Lysippo (Hor. Ep. ii. 1. 240), another than Lysippus.
 - num aliud vidētur esse ac meōrum bonōrum dīreptiō (Dom. 51), does it seem anything different from the plundering of my property!
 - erat historia nihil aliud nisi annalium confectio (De O1. ii. 52), history was nothing else but a compiling of records.
- e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry:
 - tempus tē citius quam ōrātiō dēficeret (Rosc. Am. 89), time would fail you sooner than words. But, —
 - cur olivum sanguine viperino cautius vitat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), why does he shun oil more carefully than viper's blood?
- Note.—Prepositions meaning before or beyond (as ante, prae, praeter, supra) are sometimes used with a comparative: as,—scelere ante alios immanior omnis (Aen. i. 347), more monstrous in crime than all other men.

USES OF THE ABLATIVE AS INSTRUMENTAL

408. Means, Instrument, Manner, and Accompaniment are denoted by the Instrumental Ablative (see § 398), but some of these uses more commonly require a preposition. As they all come from one source (the old *Instrumental Case*) no sharp line can be drawn between them, and indeed the Romans themselves can hardly have thought of any distinction. Thus, in omnibus precibus ōrābant, they entreated with every [kind of] prayer, the ablative, properly that of means, cannot be distinguished from that of manner.

Ablative of Means or Instrument

- 409. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action:
 - certantes pügnis, calcibus, unguibus, morsū denique (Tusc. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.
 - cum pūgnīs et calcibus concīsus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pummelled with their fists and heels.
 - meis laboribus interitū rem pūblicam liberāvī (Sull. 33), by my toils I have saved the state from ruin.
 - multae istārum arborum meā manū sunt satae (Cat. M. 59), many of those trees were set out with my own hands.
 - vi victa vis, vel potius oppressa virtūte audācia est (Mil. 30), violence was overcome by violence, or rather, boldness was put down by courage.
- a. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like:—
 - Deus bonis omnibus explévit mundum (Tim. 3), God has filled the world with all good things.
 - aggere et crātibus fos as explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fasc es.
 - tōtum montem hominibus complēvit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.
 - opimus praedā (Verr. ii. 1. 132), rich with spoils.
 - vita plēna et conferta voluptātibus (Sest.23), lifefilled and crowded with delights. Forum Appi differtum nautīs (Hor. S. i. 5. 4), Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.
- Note.—In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words. Complete and implete sometimes take the genitive in prose (cf. § 356); so regularly plenus and (with personal nouns) completus and refertus (§ 349. a):
 - omnia plēna lūctūs et maeroris fuērunt (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.
 - ollam dēnāriorum implēre (Fam. ix. 18), to fill a pot with money. [Here evidently colloquial, otherwise rare in Cicero.]
 - convivium vicinorum compleo (Cat. M. 46, in the mouth of Cato), I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.
 - cum complētus mercātorum carcer esset (Verr. v. 147), when the prison was full of traders.

410. The deponents utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative:—

ütar vestrā benīgnitāte (Arch. 18), I will avail myself of your kindness. ita mihi salvā rē pūblicā vöbīscum perfruī liceat (Cat. iv. 11), so may I enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.

fungi inani munere (Aen. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.

auro heros potitur (Ov. M. vii. 156), the hero takes the gold.

lacte et ferinā carne vescēbantur (Iug. 89), they fed on milk and game.

Note.—This is properly an Ablative of Means (instrumental) and the verbs are really in the middle voice (§ 156. a). Thus utor with the ablative signifies I employ myself (or avail myself) by means of, etc. But these earlier meanings disappeared from the language, leaving the construction as we find it.

a. Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 357. a):—

totius Galliae sese potiri posse sperant (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.

Note 1.—In early Latin, these verbs are sometimes transitive and take the accusative:—

functus est officium (Ter. Ph. 281), he performed the part, etc.

ille patria potitur commoda (Ter. Ad. 871), he enjoys his ancestral estate.

Note 2.—The Gerundive of these verbs is used personally in the passive as if the verb were transitive (but cf. § 500. 3): as,—Hēracliō omnia ūtenda ac possidenda trādiderat (Verr. ii. 46), he had given over everything to Heraclius for his use and possession (to be used and possessed).

411. Opus and ūsus, signifying need, take the Ablative:—² magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), there is need of magistrates. nunc vīribus ūsus (Aen. viii. 441), now there is need of strength.

Note. — The ablative with usus is not common in classic prose.

a. With opus the ablative of a perfect participle is often found, either agreeing with a noun or used as a neuter abstract noun:—

opus est tuā expromptā malitiā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), I must have your best cunning and cleverness set to work.

properato opus erat (cf. Mil. 49), there was need of haste.

Note 1.—So rarely with usus in comedy: as,—quid istis usust conscriptis (Pl. Bacch. 749), what's the good of having them in writing?

NOTE 2.— The omission of the noun gives rise to complex constructions: as,—quid opus factost (cf. B. G. i. 42), what must be done? [Cf. quid opus est fleri? with quo facto opus est?]

1 These are abutor, deutor (very rare), defungor, defruor, perfruor, perfungor.

² This construction is properly an instrumental one, in which opus and usus mean work and service, and the ablative expresses that with which the work is performed or the service rendered. The noun usus follows the analogy of the verb utor, and the ablative with opus est appears to be an extension of that with usus est.

b. Open is often found in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject:—

dux nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6. 4), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

si quid ipsi opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).

quae opus sunt (Cato R. R. 14. 3), things which are required.

Ablative of Manner

412. The Manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun:

cum celeritate venit, he came with speed. But, -

summa celeritate venit, he came with the greatest speed.

quid refert qua me ratione cogatis (Lael. 26), what difference does it make in what way you compel me?

a. But cum is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective:—

quanto id cum periculo fecerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this.

non minore cum taedio recubant (Plin. Ep. ix. 17. 8), they recline with no less weariness.

b. With such words of manner as modo, pacto, ratione, ritu, vi, via, and with stock expressions which have become virtually adverbs (as silentio, iure, initria), cum is not used:—

apis Matinae more medoque carmina fingo (Hor. Od. iv. 2. 28), in the style and manner of a Matinian bee I fashion songs.

Note.—So in poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as,—insequitur cumulo aquae mons (Aen. i. 105), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. murmure (id. i. 124); rimis (id. i. 123).]

Ablative of Accompaniment

413. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum: —

cum coniugibus ac liberis (Att. viii. 2. 3), with wives and children.

cum funditöribus sagittäriisque ffümen tränsgressi (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

quae supplicatio si cum ceteris conferatur (Cat. iii. 15), if this thanksgiving be compared with others.

quae [lex] esse cum telo vetat (Mil. 11), the law which forbids [one] to go armed (be with a weapon).

si sēcum suos ēdūxeris (Cat. i. 30), if he leads out with him his associates.

[For sēcum, see § 144. b. n.1.]

- a. The ablative is used without cum in some military phrases, and here and there by early writers:
 - subsequebătur omnibus copiis (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces. [But also cum omnibus copiis, id. i. 26.]
 - hoc praesidio profectus est (Verr. ii. 1. 86), with this force he set out.
- Note. Misceo and iungo, with some of their compounds, and confundo take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without cum, or (2) sometimes the Dative (mostly poetical or late): —

mixta dolore voluptas (B. Al. 56), pleasure mingled with pain.

cûius animum cum suo misceat (Lael. 81), whose soul he may mingle with his own. fletumque cruori miscuit (Ov. M. iv. 140), and mingled tears with blood.

Caesar eas cohortis cum exercitū suo coniūnxit (B. C. i. 18), Cæsar united those cohorts with his own army.

āer coniunctus terris (Lucr. v. 562), air united with earth.

hūmānō capitī cervīcem equīnam iungere (Hor. A. P. 1), to join to a human head a horse's neck.

b. Words of Contention and the like require cum: —

armis cum hoste certare (Off. iii. 87), to fight with the enemy in arms.

libenter haec cum Q. Catulo disputarem (Manil. 66), I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.

Note. — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 368. a).

Ablative of Degree of Difference

414. With Comparatives and words implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference:—

quinque milibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant.

ā mīlibus passuum circiter duōbus (B. G. v. 32), at a distance of about two miles. [For ā as an adverb, see § 433. 3.]

aliquot ante annia (Tusc. i. 4), several years before.

aliquanto post suspexit (Rep. vi. 9), a while after, he looked up.

multo me vigilare acrius (Cat. i. 8), that I watch much more sharply.

- nihilo erat ipse Cyclops quam aries prudentior (Tusc. v. 115), the Cyclops himself was not a whit wiser than the ram.
- α . The ablatives quo...eo (hoc), and quanto... tanto, are used correlatively with comparatives, like the English the... the^1 :—

quo minus cupiditatis, eo plus auctoritatis (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed, the more weight (by what the less, by that the more).

quanto erat gravior oppugnatio, tanto crebriores litterae mittebantur (B. G. v. 45), the severer the siege was, the more frequently letters were sent.

In this phrase the is not the definite article but a pronominal adverb, being the Anglo-Saxon th \bar{y} , the instrumental case of the pronoun thæt, that. This pronoun is used both as relative (by which, by how much) and as demonstrative (by that, by so much). Thus the . . . the corresponds exactly to quō . . . eō.

Note.—To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of quo and co (hoc) with a comparative, even when they have ceased to be distinctly felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause:—

eoque me minus paenitet (N. D. i. 8), and for that reason I regret less, etc. (by so much the less I regret).

haec eo facilius faciëbant, quod (B. G. iii. 12), this they did the more easily for this reason, because, etc. [Cf. hoc mâiore spē, quod (id. iii. 9).]

b. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 406) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference are sometimes used together with the same adjective:—

paulo minus ducentis (B. C. iii. 28), a little less than two hundred.

patria, quae mihi vītā meā multō est cārior (Cat. i. 27), my country, which is much dearer to me than life.

But the construction with quam is more common.

Ablative of Quality

415. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with an adjective or genitive modifier.

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality:—

animo meliore sunt gladiatores (Cat. ii. 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.

quae cum esset cīvitās aequissimo iūre ac foedere (Arch. 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.

mulierem eximia pulchritudine (Verr. ii. 1. 64), a woman of rare beauty.

Aristotelës, vir summo ingenio, scientia, copia (Tusc. i. 7), Aristotle, a man of the greatest genius, learning, and gift of expression.

de Domitio dixit versum Graecum eadem sententia (Deiot. 25), concerning Domitius he recited a Greek line of the same tenor.

Note.—The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality, § 345) modifies a substantive by describing it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs.

a. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but *physical* qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative (cf. § 345. N.):—

capillo sunt promisso (B. G. v. 14), they have long hair.

ut capite operto sit (Cat. M. 34), to have his head covered (to be with covered head).

quam fuit inbēcillus P. Āfricānī fīlius, quam tenuī aut nūllā potius valētūdine (id. 35), how weak was the son of Africanus, of what feeble health, or rather none at all!

¹ It was originally instrumental and appears to have developed from accompaniment (§ 413) and manner (§ 412).

Ablative of Price

416. The price of a thing is put in the Ablative:—

agrum vēndidit sēstertium sex mīlibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces. Antonius rēgna addīxit pecūniā (Phil. vii. 15), Antony sold thrones for money. logos rīdiculos: quis cēnā poscit (Pl. Stich. 221), jokes: who wants them for

(at the price of) a dinner?

māgno illī ea cunctātio stetit (Liv. ii. 36), that hesitation cost him dear.

Note. — To this head is to be referred the Ablative of the Penalty (§ 353. 1).

417. Certain adjectives of quantity are used in the Genitive to denote indefinite value. Such are māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī, plūris, minoris:—

meā māgnī interest, it is of great consequence to me.

illud parvī rēfert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.

est mihi tanti (Cat. ii. 15), it is worth the price (it is of so much).

Verresne tibi tanti fuit (Verr. ii. 1. 77), was Verres of so much account to you?

tantone minoris decumae vēniērunt (id. iii. 106), were the tithes sold for so much less?

ut te redimas captum quam queas minimo: si nequeas paululo, at quanti queas (Ter. Eun. 74), to ransom yourself, when captured, at the cheapest rate you can; if you can't for a small sum, then at any rate for what you can.

NOTE. — These are really Genitives of Quality (§ 345. b).

a. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used to denote indefinite value. Such are nihili (nīlī), nothing; assis, a farthing (rare); floccī (a lock of wool), a straw:—

non flocci facio (Att. xiii. 50), I care not a straw. [Colloquial.] utinam ego istuc abs te factum nili penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), O that I cared nothing for this being done by you! [Colloquial.]

b. With verbs of exchanging, either the thing taken or the thing given in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are mūtō, commūtō, permūtō, vertō:—

fidem suam et religionem pecunia commutare (Clu. 129), to barter his faith and conscience for money.

exsilium patriā sēde mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 7. 11), he exchanged his native land for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).

vēlox saepe Lucrētilem mūtat Lycaeo Faunus (Hor. Od. i. 17. 1), nimble Faunus often changes Lycœus for Lucretilis. [He takes Lucretilis at the price of Lycœus, i.e. he goes from Lycœus to Lucretilis.]

vertere füneribus triumphos (id. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral train (exchange triumphs for funerals). [Poetical.]

- Note. With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as, —aries... cum croceo mutabit vellera luto (Ecl. iv. 44), the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow suffron.
- c. With verbs of buying and selling the simple Ablative of Price must be used, except in the case of tanti, quanti, plūris, minoris:—

 quanti eam ēmit? vīlī . . . quot minis? quadrāgintā minis (Pl. Epid. 51),
 what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many minæ? Forty.

Ablative of Specification

418. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done:—

virtūte praecēdunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage.

claudus altero pede (Nep. Ages. 8), lame of one foot.

linguā haesitantēs, voce absonī (De Or. i. 115), hesitating in speech, harsh in voice.

sunt enim hominës non rë sed nomine (Off. i. 105), for they are men not in fact, but in name.

maior natū, older; minor natū, younger (cf. § 131. c).

paulum aetāte progressī (Cat. M. 33), somewhat advanced in age.

- in body, he never will be [old] at heart.
- a. To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative expresses that in accordance with which anything is or is done:—

meō iūre, with perfect right; but, meō modō, in my fashion.

- meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meā sententiā. [Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification, the second source.]
- propinquitāte coniunctos atque nāturā (Lael. 50), closely allied by kindred and nature. [Here the ablative is not different in sense from those above, but no doubt is a development of means.]
- qui vincit viribus (id. 55), who surpasses in strength. [Here it is impossible to tell whether viribus is the means of the superiority or that in respect to which one is superior.]

Note. — As the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. The ablative of specification (originally instrumental) is closely akin to that of manner, and shows some resemblance to means and cause.

For the Supine in -ū as an Ablative of Specification, see § 510.

- b. The adjectives dignus and indignus take the ablative:
 - vir patre, avō, mâiōribus suīs dīgnissimus (Phil. iii. 25), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.
 - tē omnī honore indignissimum iūdicāvit (Vat. 39), he judged you entirely unworthy of every honor.

Note 1.—So the verb dignor in poetry and later prose: as,—haud equidem tali me dignor honore (Aen. i. 335), I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.

Note 2. — Dignus and indignus sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry:—

cūram dīgnissimam tuae virtūtis (Balbus in Att. viii. 15), care most worthy of your noble character.

dīgnus salūtis (Plaut. Trin. 1153), worthy of safety.

māgnorum haud umquam indīgnus avorum (Aen. xii. 649), never unworthy of my great ancestors.

Ablative Absolute

419. A noun or pronoun, with a participle in agreement, may be put in the Ablative to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action. This construction is called the Ablative Absolute:—1

Caesar, acceptis litteris, nuntium mittit (B. G. v. 46), having received the letter, Cæsar sends a messenger (the letter having been received).

quibus rebus cognitis Caesar apud milites contionatur (B. C. i. 7), having learned this, Cæsar makes a speech to the soldiers.

fugātō omnī equitātū (B. G. vii. 68), all the cavalry being put to flight.

interfecto Indutiomaro (id. vi. 2), upon the death of Indutiomarus.

nondum hieme confecta in finis Nerviorum contendit (id. vi. 3), though the winter was not yet over, he hastened into the territory of the Nervii.

compressi [sunt] conatus nullo tumultu publice concitato (Cat. i. 11), the attempts were put down without exciting any general alarm.

në vobis quidem omnibus rë etiam tum probata (id. ii. 4), since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.

NOTE.—The ablative absolute is an adverbial modifier of the predicate. It is, however, not grammatically dependent on any word in the sentence: hence its name absolute (absolutus, i.e. free or unconnected). A substantive in the ablative absolute very seldom denotes a person or thing elsewhere mentioned in the same clause.

- a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction:—2
 - exiguā parte aestātis reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), when but a small part of the summer was left (a small part of the summer remaining).
 - L. Domitio Ap. Claudio consulibus (id. v. 1), in the consulship of Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius (Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius [being] consuls). [The regular way of expressing a date, see § 424. g.]
 - nil desperandum Teucro duce et auspice Teucro (Hor. Od. i. 7. 27), there should be no despair under Teucer's leadership and auspices (Teucer being leader, etc.).

¹ The Ablative Absolute is perhaps of *instrumental* origin. It is, however, sometimes explained as an outgrowth of the *locative*, and in any event certain locative constructions (of *place* and *time*) must have contributed to its development.

² The present participle of esse, wanting in Latin (§ 170. b), is used in Sanskrit and Greek as in English.

b. A phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective:—

incerto quid peterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).

comperto vanum esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.

cūr praetereātur dēmonstrāto (Inv. ii. 34), when the reason for omitting it has been explained (why it is passed by being explained).

Note. — This construction is very rare except in later Latin.

c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive:—

consulto (Off. i. 27), on purpose (the matter having been deliberated on). mihi optāto vēneris (Att. xiii. 28. 3), you will come in accordance with my wish.

serēno (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).

nec auspicato nec litato (id. v. 38), with no auspices or favorable sacrifice.

tranquillo, ut âiunt, qu'ilibet gubernator est (Sen. Ep. 85. 34), in good weather, as they say, any man's a pilot.

420. The Ablative Absolute often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause.

Thus it may replace —

1. A Temporal Clause (§ 541 ff.):—

patre interfecto, [his] father having been killed. [This corresponds to cum pater interfectus esset, when his father had been killed.]

recentibus sceleris ĉius vestīgiīs (Q. C. vii. 1. 1), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestīgia.]

2. A Causal Clause (§ 540):—

- at el qui Alesiae obsidebantur praeterită die qua auxilia suorum exspectăverant, consumpto omni frumento, concilio coacto consultabant (B. G. vii. 77), but those who were under siege at Alesia, since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see 5 below), consulted together. [Cf. cum dies praeterisset, etc.]
- Dārēus, dēspērātā pāce, ad reparandās vīrīs intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6. 1), Darius, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pācem dēspērāret.]
- 3. A Concessive Clause (§ 527):
 - at eō repūgnante fiēbat (cōnsul), immo vērō eō fiēbat magis (Mil. 34), but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.
 - turribus excitātīs, tamen hās altitūdo puppium ex barbarīs nāvibus superābat (B. G. iii. 14), although towers had been built up, still the high sterns of the enemy's ships rose above them.

4. A Conditional Clause (§ 521):—

- occurrebat el, mancam et debilem praeturam futuram suam, consule Milone (Mil. 25), it occurred to him that his prætorship would be maimed and feeble, if Milo were consul. [si Milo consul esset.]
- quā (regione) subāctā licēbit dēcurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3. 13), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea.
- qua quidem detracta (Arch. 28), if this be taken away.
- 5. A Clause of Accompanying Circumstance:
 - ego haec ā Chrysogono meā sponte, remoto Sex. Roscio, quaero (Rosc. Am. 130), of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (Sextus Roscius being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus.
 - nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente domino (Mil. 29), without their master's giving orders, or knowing it, or being present.

NOTE. — As the English Nominative Absolute is far less common than the Ablative Absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be rendered in English by a relative clause with when or while; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle. These changes may be seen in the following example:—

At illī, intermissō spatiō, imprūdentibus nostrīs atque occupātīs in mūnītiōne castrōrum, subitō sē ex silvīs ēiēcērunt; impetūque in eōs factō quī erant in statione prō castrīs conlocātī, ācriter pūgnāvērunt; duābusque missīs subsidiō cohortibus ā Caesare, cum hae (perexiquō intermissō locī spatiō inter sē) cōnstitissent, novō genere pūgnae perterritīs nostrīs, per mediōs audācissimē perrūpērunt sēque inde incolumīs recēpērunt.— CAESAR, B. G. v. 15.

But they, having paused a space, while our men were unaware and busied in fortifying the camp, suddenly threw themselves out of the woods; then, making an attack upon those who were on guard in front of the camp, they fought fiercely; and, though two cohorts had been sent by Cæsar as reinforcements, after these had taken their position (leaving very little space of ground between them), as our men were alarmed by the strange kind of fighting, they dashed most daringly through the midst of them and got off safe.

For the Ablative with Prepositions, see § 220.

THE ABLATIVE AS LOCATIVE

Ablative of Place

- 421. The Locative Case was originally used (literally) to denote the place where and (figuratively) to denote the time when (a development from the idea of place). But this case was preserved only in names of towns and a few other words, and the place where is usually denoted by the Ablative. In this construction the Ablative was, no doubt, used at first without a preposition, but afterwards it became associated in most instances with the preposition in.
- 422. In expressions of Time and Place the Latin shows a variety of idiomatic constructions (Ablative, Accusative, and Locative), which are systematically treated in § 423 ff.

TIME AND PLACE

Time

- 423. Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative.
 - 1. Ablative:—

constitută die, on the appointed day; primă luce, at daybreak.
quotă horă, at what o'clock? tertia vigilia, in the third watch.
tribus proximis annis (Iug. 11), within the last three years.
disbus viginti quinque aggerem exstruxerunt (B. G. vii. 24), within twentyfive days they finished building a mound.

2. Accusative: —

dies continuos triginta, for thirty days together. cum triduum iter fecisset (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.

Note. — The Ablative of Time is locative in its origin (§ 421); the Accusative is the same as that of the extent of space (§ 425).

- 424. Special constructions of time are the following:—
- a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long per, for greater precision:—

in diebus proximis decem (Iug. 28), within the next ten days. ludi per decem dies (Cat. iii. 20), games for ten days.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative:—
milites quinque horis proclium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

NOTE. — In this use the period of time is regarded as that within which the act is done, and it is only implied that the act lasted through the period. Cf. inter annos quattuordecim (B. G. i. 36), for fourteen years.

c. Time during which or within which may be expressed by the Accusative or Ablative of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral:—

quinto die, within [just] four days (lit. on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 631. d.]

regnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years.

d. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of time when where in English the main idea is rather of place:—

pūgnā Cannēnsi (or, apud Cannās), in the fight at Cannæ. lūdis Rōmānīs, at the Roman games. omnibus Gallicis bellis, in all the Gallic wars.

e. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the Accusative with ad, in, or sub is used. Such are the following:—

supplicatio decreta est in Kalendas lanuarias, a thanksgiving was voted for the first of January.

convenerunt ad diem, they assembled on the [appointed] day. ad vesperum, till evening; sub vesperum, towards evening. sub idem tempus, about the same time; sub noctem, at nightfall.

f. Distance of time before or after anything is variously expressed:

post (ante) tres annos, post tertium annum, tres post annos, tertium post annum, tribus post annis, tertio post anno (§ 414), three years after.

tribus annis (tertio anno) post exsilium (postquam eiectus est), three years after his exile.

his tribus proximis annis, within the last three years.

paucis annis, a few years hence.

abhine annos tres (tribus annis), ante hos tres annos, three years ago.

triennium est cum (tres anni sunt cum), it is three years since.

octāvo mēnse quam, the eighth month after (see § 434. n.).

g. In Dates the phrase ante diem (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.

The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, usually without a conjunction ($\S 419$. α):—

- is dies erat a. d. v. Kal. Apr. (quintum Kalendas Aprilis) L. Pisone A. Gabinio consulibus (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April (March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.
- in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 7), to the 5th day before the calends of November (Oct. 28).
- xv. Kal. Sextilis, the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18). [Full form: quinto decimo die ante Kalendas.]

For the Roman Calendar, see § 631.

Extent of Space

425. Extent of Space is expressed by the Accusative:—

fossās quindecim pedēs lātās (B. G. vii. 72), trenches fifteen feet broad. progressus mīlia passuum circiter duodecim (id. v. 9), having advanced about twelve miles.

in omnī vītā suā quemque ā rēctā conscientiā trānsversum unguem non oportet discēdere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.

NOTE. — This Accusative denotes the object through or over which the action takes place, and is kindred with the Accusative of the End of Motion (§ 427. 2).

- a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (§ 345. b): valum duodecim pedum (B. G. vii. 72), a rampart of twelve feet (in height).
- b. Distance when considered as extent of space is put in the Accusative; when considered as degree of difference, in the Ablative (§ 414):—

mīlia passuum tria ab eōrum castrīs castra pōnit (B. G. i. 22), he pitches his camp three miles from their camp.

quinque diërum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), it is distant five days' march. trigintā mīlibus passuum infrā eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

Relations of Place

- 426. Relations of Place 1 are expressed as follows:—
- 1. The place from which, by the Ablative with ab, de, or ex.
- 2. The place to which (or end of motion), by the Accusative with ad or in.
 - 3. The place where, by the Ablative with in (Locative Ablative). Examples are:—
 - 1. Place from which: —

a septentrione, from the north.

cum ā vobīs discessero (Cat. M. 79), when I leave you.

de provincia decedere, to come away from one's province.

de monte, down from the mountain.

negotiator ex Africa (Verr. ii. 1. 14), a merchant from Africa.

ex Britanniā obsidēs mīsērunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain. Mōsa prōfluit ex monte Vosegō (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.

2. Place to which (end of motion): —

nocte ad Nerviös pervenerunt (B. G. ii. 17), they came by night to the Nervii. adībam ad istum fundum (Caec. 82), I was going to that estate.

in Āfricam nāvigāvit, he sailed to Africa; in Italiam profectus, gone to Italy. lēgātum in Treverōs mittit (B. G. iii. 11), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

¹ Originally all these relations were expressed by the cases alone. The accusative, in one of its oldest functions, denoted the end of motion; the ablative, in its proper meaning of separation, denoted the place from which, and, in its locative function, the place where. The prepositions, originally adverbs, were afterwards added to define more exactly the direction of motion (as in to usward, toward us), and by long association became indispensable except as indicated below.

3. Place where: —

in hāc urbe vītam dēgit, he passed his life in this city.

sī in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), if they remained in Gaul.

dum haec in Venetis geruntur (id. iii. 17), while this was going on among the Veneti.

oppidum in insula positum (id. vii. 58), a town situated on an island.

- 427. With names of towns and small islands, and with domus and rūs, the Relations of Place are expressed as follows:—
 - 1. The place from which, by the Ablative without a preposition.
 - 2. The place to which, by the Accusative without a preposition.
 - 3. The place where, by the Locative.

Examples are: —

1. Place from which: —

Roma profectus, having set out from Rome; Roma abesse, to be absent from Rome.

domo abire, to leave home; rure reversus, having returned from the country.

2. Place to which:

cum Romam sexto die Mutina venisset (Fam. xi. 6. 1), when he had come to Rome from Modena in five days (on the sixth day).

Dēlo Rhodum nāvigāre, to sail from Delos to Rhodes.

rūs ībō, I shall go into the country.

domum iit, he went home.² [So, suās domos abīre, to go to their homes.]

3. Place where (or at which):—

Romae, at Rome (Roma).

Rhodi, at Rhodes (Rhodus).

Sami, at Samos.

Tiburi or Tibure, at Tibur.

Philippis, at Philippi.

domi (rarely domui), at home.

Athenis, at Athens (Athenae).

Lānuvi, at Lanuvium.

Cypri, at Cyprus.

Cūribus, at Cures.

Caprels, at Capri (Capreae).

rūrī, in the country.

a. The Locative Case is also preserved in the following nouns, which are used (like names of towns) without a preposition:—

belli, militiae (in contrast to domi), abroad, in military service.

humi, on the ground.

vesperI (-e), in the evening.

foris, out of doors.

animī (see § 358).

heri (-e), yesterday.

temperi, betimes.

Cf. Infelici arbori (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened (barren) tree; terra marique, by land and sea.

¹ The Locative has in the singular of the first and second declensions the same form as the Genitive, in the plural and in the third declension the same form as the Dative or Ablative. (See p. 34, footnote.)

² The English home in this construction is, like domum, an old accusative of the end of motion.

- 428. Special uses of place from which, to which, and where are the following:—
- a. With names of towns and small islands ab is often used to denote from the vicinity of, and ad to denote towards, to the neighborhood of:
 - ut a Mutina discederet (Phil. xiv. 4), that he should retire from Modena (which he was besieging).
 - erat ā Gergoviā dēspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about Gergovia a view into the camp.
 - ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (id. vii. 76), they set out for Alesia.
 - ad Alesiam perveniunt (id. vii. 79), they arrive at Alesia (i.e. in the neighborhood of the town).
 - D. Laelius cum classe ad Brundisium vēnit (B. C. iii. 100), Decimus Lælius came to Brundisium with a fleet (arriving in the harbor).
- b. The general words urbs, oppidum, insula require a preposition to express the place from which, to which, or where:—

ab (ex) urbe, from the city.

in urbe, in the city.

ad urbem, to the city.

Romae in urbe, in the city of Rome.

in urbem, into the city. Roma ex urbe, from the city of Rome.

ad urbem Romam (Romam ad urbem), to the city of Rome.

c. With the name of a country, ad denotes to the borders; in with the accusative, into the country itself. Similarly ab denotes away from the outside; ex, out of the interior.

Thus ad Italiam pervenit would mean he came to the frontier, regardless of the destination; in Italiam, he went to Italy, i.e. to a place within it, to Rome, for instance.

So ab Italia profectus est would mean he came away from the frontier, regardless of the original starting-point; ex Italia, he came from Italy, from within, as from Rome, for instance.

d. With all names of places at, meaning near (not in), is expressed by ad or apud with the accusative.

pügna ad Cannās, the fight at Cannae.

conchas ad Câietam legunt (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore).

ad (apud) Inferos, in the world below (near, or among, those below).

ad foris, at the doors.

ad ianuam, at the door.

Note 1.—In the neighborhood of may be expressed by circa with the accusative; among, by apud with the accusative:—

apud Graecos, among the Greeks. apud mē, at my house.

apud Solēnsīs (Leg. ii. 41), at Soli. circā Capuam, round about Capua.

Note 2.—In citing an author, apud is regularly used; in citing a particular work, in. Thus,—apud Xenophontem, in Xenophon; but, in Xenophontis Oeconomico, in Xenophon's Œconomicus.

e. Large islands, and all places when thought of as a territory and not as a locality, are treated like names of countries:—

in Siciliā, in Sicily.

in Ithaca lepores illati moriuntur (Plin. H. N. viii. 226), in Ithaca hares, when carried there, die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca would require Ithacae.]

f. The Ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions:—

cessisset patria (Mil. 68), he would have left his country. patria pellere, to drive out of the country. manü mittere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).

g. The poets and later writers often omit the preposition with the place from which or to which when it would be required in classical prose:—

mānīs Acheronte remissos (Aen. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron. Scythia profecti (Q. C. iv. 12. 11), setting out fr m Scythia.

Italiam Lāvīniaque vēnit lītora (Aen. i. 2), he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores.

terram Hesperiam veniës (id. ii. 781), you shall come to the Hesperian land. Aegyptum proficiscitur (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he sets out for Egypt.

h. In poetry the place to which is often expressed by the Dative, occasionally also in later prose:—

it clamor caelo (Aen. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.

facilis descensus Averno (id. vi. 126), easy is the descent to Avernus.

diadema capiti reponere iussit (Val. Max. v. 1. 9), he ordered him to put back the diadem on his head.

4. The preposition is not used with the supine in -um (§ 509) and in the following old phrases:—

exsequiās īre, to go to the funeral.

pessum īre, to go to ruin.

pessum dare, to sell (give to sale).

[Hence vēndere.]

vēnum īre, to be sold (go to sale). [Hence vēnīre.]

forās (used as adverb), out: as, — forās ēgredī, to go out of doors. suppetiās advenīre, to come to one's assistance.

j. When two or more names of place are used with a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction:—

quadriduō quō haec gesta sunt rēs ad Chrysogonum in castra L. Sullae Volāterrās dēfertur (Rosc. Am. 20), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported to Chrysogonus in Sulla's camp at Volaterræ.

Note.—The accusative with or without a preposition is often used in Latin when motion to a place is implied but not expressed in English (see k, N.).

k. Domum denoting the place to which, and the locative domi, may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive:—

domum rēgis (Deiot. 17), to the king's house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 8), to Marcus Læca's house.]

domi meae, at my house; domi Caesaris, at Cæsar's house.

domi suae vel alienae, at his own or another's house.

Note. — At times when thus modified, and regularly when otherwise modified, in domum or in domō is used: —

in domum prīvātam conveniunt (Tac. H. iv. 55), they come together in a private house. in Mārcī Crassī castissimā domō (Cael. 9), in the chaste home of Marcus Crassus. [Cf. ex Anniānā M:15nis domō, § 302. e.]

- 429. The place where is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in the following instances:—
 - 1. Often in indefinite words, such as loco, parte, etc.:— quibus loco positis (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position.

qua parte belli vicerant (Liv. xxi. 22), the branch of warfare in which they were victorious.

locis certis horrea constituit (B. C. iii. 32), he established granaries in particular places.

2. Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when tōtus is used):—

mediā urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city.

tōtā Siciliā (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily).

tota Tarracina (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracina.

cunctă Asia atque Graecia (Manil. 12), throughout the whole of Asia and Greece too.

- 3. In many idiomatic expressions which have lost the idea of place: pendēmus animīs (Tusc. i. 96), we are in suspense of mind (in our minds). socius perīculīs vōbīscum aderō (Iug. 85. 47), I will be present with you, a companion in dangers.
- 4. Freely in poetry:—

litore curvo (Aen. iii. 16), on the winding shore.

antro seclusa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.

Ēpīrō, Hesperiā (id. iii. 503), in Epirus, in Hesperia.

premit altum corde dolorem (id. i. 209), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.

a. The way by which is put in the Ablative without a preposition: viā breviōre equitēs praemīsī (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.

Aegaeō marī trāiēcit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Ægean Sea. provehimur pelagō (Aen. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

NOTE. — In this use the way by which is conceived as the means of passage.

b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from:—¹

ā tergō, in the rear; ā sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.] ā parte Pompêiānā, on the side of Pompey.

ex altera parte, on the other side.

māgnā ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).

430. Verbs of *placing*, though implying motion, take the construction of the place where:—

Such are pono, loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, etc.: —

qui in sede ac domo collocavit (Par. 25), who put [one] into his place and home.

statuitur eques Romanus in Aproni convivio (Verr. iii. 62), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.

Insula Dēlos in Aegaeō marī posita (Manil. 55), the island of Delos, situated in the Ægean Sea.

si in uno Pompêio omnia poneretis (id. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.

Note. — Compounds of pono take various constructions (see the Lexicon under each word).

431. Several verbs are followed by the Ablative.

These are acquiesco, delector, laetor, gaudeo, glorior, nitor, sto, maneo, fido, confido, consisto, contineor.

nominibus veterum gloriantur (Or. 169), they glory in the names of the ancients.

[Also, de divitils (in virtute, circa rem, aliquid, haec) gloriari.]

spē nītī (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope.

prüdentiä fidens (Off. i. 81), trusting in prudence.

Note.—The ablative with these verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (but fido in is late), and the ablative with them is probably locative. Thus,—in quibus causa nititur (Cael. 25), on whom the case depends.

With several of these verbs the neuter Accusative of pronouns is often found. For fido and confido with the Dative, see § 367.

a. The verbals fretus, contentus, and lactus take the Locative Ablative:—

frētus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21. 12), relying on the favor of Brutus. laetus praedā, rejoicing in the booty.

contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly Ablative of Cause.] non fuit contentus gloria (Dom. 101), he was not content with the glory.

Note. — So intentus, rarely: as, — aliquo negotio intentus (Sall. Cat. 2), intent on some occupation.

¹ Apparently the direction whence the sensuous impression comes.

SPECIAL USES OF PREPOSITIONS 1

Adverbs and Prepositions

- 432. Certain Adverbs and Adjectives are sometimes used as Prepositions:—
- a. The adverbs pridië, postridië, propius, proximë, less frequently the adjectives propior and proximus, may be followed by the Accusative:—

pridië Nonas Mâias (Att. ii. 11), the day before the Nones of May (see § 631). postridië lüdos (Att. xvi. 4), the day after the games.

propius periculum (Liv. xxi. 1), nearer to danger.

propior montem (Iug. 49), nearer the hill.

proximus mare oceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

Note.—Pridië and postridië take also the Genitive (§ 359. b). Propier, propius, proximus, and proximë, take also the Dative, or the Ablative with ab:—

propius Tiberi quam Thermopylis (Nep. Hann. 8), nearer to the Tiber than to Thermopyles.

Sugambrī quī sunt proximī Rhēno (B. G. vi. 35), the Sugambri, who are nearest to the Rhine.

proximus a postremo (Or. 217), next to the last.

b. Usque sometimes takes the Accusative, but usque ad is much more common:—

terminos usque Libyae (Iust. i. 1. 5), to the bounds of Libya. usque ad castra hostium (B. G. i. 51), to the enemy's camp.

c. The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may be used as prepositions and take the Ablative:—

rem crēditōrī palam populō solvit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt to his creditor in the presence of the people.

haud procul castris in modum municipi exstructs (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up like a town.

simul nobis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), close among us dwells the barbarian.

Note. —But simul regularly takes cum; procul is usually followed by ab in classic writers; and the use of palam as a preposition is comparatively late.

d. The adverb clam is found in early Latin with the Accusative, also once with the Genitive and once in classical Latin with the Ablative:—

clam matrem suam (Pl. Mil. 112), unknown to his mother. clam patris (id. Merc. 43), without his father's knowledge. clam vobis (B. C. ii. 32. 8), without your knowledge.

¹ For a list of Prepositions with their ordinary uses, see § 221.

- 433. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as Adverbs:—
 - 1. Ante and post in relations of time:—
 quōs paulō ante diximus (Brut. 32), whom I mentioned a little while ago.
 post tribus diēbus, three days after (cf. § 424. f).
 - 2. Adversus, circiter, prope:—
 nēmō adversus ībat (Liv. xxxvii. 13. 8), no one went out in opposition.
 circiter pars quārta (Sall. Cat. 56), about the fourth part.
 prope exanimātus, nearly lifeless.
- 3. A or ab, off, in expressions of distance, with the Ablative of Degree of Difference (§ 414):
 - a milibus passuum circiter duobus Romanorum adventum exspectabant (B. G. v. 32), at a distance of about two miles (about two miles off) they awaited the approach of the Romans.
 - 4. In general, prepositions ending in -ā: —
 Aeolus haec contrā (Aen. i. 76), thus Æolus in reply.
 forte fuit iūxtā tumulus (id. iii. 22), there happened to be a mound close by.
- 434. Some Prepositions and Adverbs which imply comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, which may be separated by several words, or even clauses.

Such words are ante, prius, post, posteā, prīdiē, postrīdiē; also magis and prae in compounds:—

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.

post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), the third day after he said it. Catō ipse iam servire quam pūgnāre māvult (Att. vii. 15), Cato himself by this time had rather be a slave than fight.

Gallorum quam Romanorum imperia praeserre (B. G. i. 17), [they] preser the rule of Gauls to that of Romans.

Note.—The ablative of time is sometimes followed by quam in the same way (§ 424. f): as,—octāvō mēnse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.

435. The following Prepositions sometimes come after their nouns: ad, citrā, circum, contrā, dē, ē (ex), inter, iūxtā, penes, propter, ultrā; so regularly tenus and versus, and occasionally others:—

[usus] quem penes arbitrium est et ius et norma loquendi (Hor. A. P. 72), custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.

cûius ā mē corpus est cremātum, quod contrā decuit ab illo meum (Cat. M. 84), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB

MOODS AND TENSES

436. The Syntax of the Verb relates chiefly to the use of the Moods (which express the manner in which the action is conceived) and the Tenses (which express the time of the action). There is no difference in origin between mood and tense; and hence the uses of mood and tense frequently cross each other. Thus the tenses sometimes have modal significations (compare indicative in apodosis, § 517. c; future for imperative, § 449. b); and the moods sometimes express time (compare subjunctive in future conditions, § 516. b, and notice the want of a future subjunctive).

The parent language had, besides the Imperative mood, two or more forms with modal signification. Of these, the Subjunctive appears with two sets of terminations, -ā-m, -ā-s, in the present tense (moneam, dīcam), and -ē-m, -ē-s, in the present (amem) or other tenses (essem, dīxissem). The Optative was formed by iē-, ī-, with the present stem (sim, duim) or the perfect (dīxerim). (See details in §§ 168, 169.)

Each mood has two general classes or ranges of meaning. The uses of the Subjunctive may all be classed under the general ideas of will or desire and of action vividly conceived; and the uses of the Optative under the general ideas of wish and of action vaguely conceived.

It must not be supposed, however, that in any given construction either the subjunctive or the optative was deliberately used because it denoted conception or possibility. On the contrary, each construction has had its own line of development from more tangible and literal forms of thought to more vague and ideal; and by this process the mood used came to have in each case a special meaning, which was afterwards habitually associated with it in that construction. Similar developments have taken place in English. Thus, the expression I would do this has become equivalent to a mild command, while by analysis it is seen to be the apodosis of a present condition contrary to fact (§ 517): if I were you, etc. By further analysis, I would do is seen to have meant, originally, I should have wished (or I did wish) to do.

In Latin, the original Subjunctive and the Optative became confounded in meaning and in form, and were merged in the Subjunctive, at first in the present tense. Then new tense-forms of the subjunctive were formed, and to these the original as well as the derived meanings of both moods became attached (see § 438). All the *independent* uses of the Latin subjunctive are thus to be accounted for.

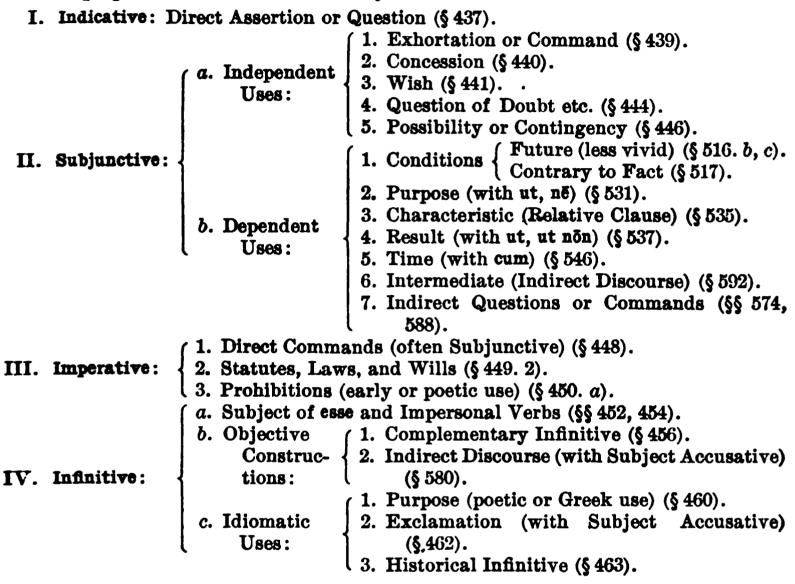
The dependent uses of the subjunctive have arisen from the employment of some independent subjunctive construction in connection with a main statement. Most frequently the main statement is prefixed to a sentence containing a subjunctive, as a more complete expression of a complex idea (§ 268). Thus a question implying a general negative (quīn rogem? why should n't I ask?) might have the general negative expressed in a prefixed statement (nūlla causa est, there is no reason); or abeat, let him go away, may be expanded into sine abeat. When such a combination comes into habitual use, the original meaning of the subjunctive partially or wholly disappears and a new meaning arises by implication. Thus, in mīsit lēgātōs quī dīcerent, he sent ambassadors to say (i.e. who should say), the original hortatory sense of the subjunctive is partially lost, and the mood becomes in part an expression of purpose. Similar processes may be seen in the growth of Apodosis. Thus, tolle hanc opīniōnem, lūctum sustuleris, remove this notion, you will have done away with grief (i.e. if you remove, etc.).

¹ For the signification of the tense-endings, see §§ 168, 169.

The Infinitive is originally a verbal noun (§ 451), modifying a verb like other nouns: volō vidēre, lit. "I wish for-seeing": compare English "what went ye out for to see?" But in Latin it has been surprisingly developed, so as to have forms for tense, and some proper modal characteristics, and to be used as a substitute for finite moods.

The other noun and adjective forms of the verb have been developed in various ways, which are treated under their respective heads below.

The proper Verbal Constructions may be thus classified: —



MOODS

INDICATIVE MOOD

- 437. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.
- a. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:—

longum est, it would be tedious [if, etc.]; satius erat, it would have been better [if, etc.]; persequi possum, I might follow up [in detail].

NOTE. — Substitutes for the Indicative are (1) the Historical Infinitive (§ 463), and (2) the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (§ 580).

For the Indicative in Conditions, see §§ 515, 516; for the Indicative in implied Commands, see § 449. b.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

- 438. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification 1 such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 157. b).
 - a. The Subjunctive is used independently to express —
 - 1. An Exhortation or Command (Hortatory Subjunctive: § 439).
 - 2. A Concession (Concessive Subjunctive: § 440).
 - 3. A Wish (Optative Subjunctive: § 441).
 - 4. A Question of Doubt etc. (Deliberative Subjunctive: § 444).
 - 5. A Possibility or Contingency (Potential Subjunctive: § 446). For the special idiomatic uses of the Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 514.
 - **b.** The Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express —
 - 1. Condition: future or contrary to fact (§§ 516. b, c, 517).
 - 2. Purpose (Final, § 531).
 - 3. Characteristic (§ 535).
 - 4. Result (Consecutive, § 537).
 - 5. Time (Temporal, § 546).
 - 6. Indirect Question (§ 574).
- c. The Subjunctive is also used with Conditional Particles of Comparison (§ 524), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 580).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

Hortatory Subjunctive

439. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used in the present tense to express an exhortation or a command. The negative is nē.

hōs latrones interficiamus (B. G. vii. 38), let us kill these robbers. caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verecundiae (Off. i. 122), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.

Note 1.—The hortatory subjunctive occurs rarely in the perfect (except in prohibitions: § 450): as,—Epicurus hoc viderit (Acad. ii. 19), let Epicurus look to this.

NOTE 2.—The term hortatory subjunctive is sometimes restricted to the first person plural, the second and third persons being designated as the jussive subjunctive; but the constructions are substantially identical.

¹ These modifications are of various kinds, each of which has had its own special development (cf. § 436). The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (as in clauses of Result and Time) where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly. In such cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action and has developed the construction differently from the English.

- Note 3. Once in Cicero and occasionally in the poets and later writers the negative with the hortatory subjunctive is non: as, ā lēgibus non recedamus (Clu. 155), let us not abandon the laws.
- a. The Second Person of the hortatory subjunctive is used only of an indefinite subject, except in prohibitions, in early Latin, and in poetry:—

iniūriās fortūnae, quās ferre nequeās, dēfugiendō relinquās (Tusc. v. 118), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight.

exoriare aliquis ultor (Aen. iv. 625), rise, some avenger.

isto bono ūtāre dum adsit, cum absit ne requirās (Cat. M. 33), use this blessing while it is present; when it is wanting do not regret it.

doceās iter et sacra ostia pandās (Aen. vi. 109), show us the way and lay open the sacred portals.

For Negative Commands (prohibitions), see § 450.

b. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an unfulfilled obligation in past time:—

morerētur, inquies (Rab. Post. 29), he should have died, you will say.

potius docëret (Off. iii. 88), he should rather have taught.

në poposcissës (Att. ii. 1. 3), you should not have asked.

saltem aliquid de pondere detraxisset (Fin. iv. 57), at least he should have taken something from the weight.

NOTE 1.—In this construction the Pluperfect usually differs from the Imperfect only in more clearly representing the time for action as momentary or as past.

NOTE 2.—This use of the subjunctive is carefully to be distinguished from the potential use (§ 446). The difference is indicated by the translation, should or ought (not would or might).

- 440. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express a concession.¹ The Present is used for present time, the Perfect for past. The negative is nē.
 - sit für, sit sacrilegus: at est bonus imperator (Verr. v. 4), grant he is a thief, a godless wretch: yet he is a good general.
 - fuerit alis; tibi quando esse coepit (Verr. ii. 1. 37), suppose he was [so] to others; when did he begin to be to you?
 - nëmö is umquam fuit: në fuerit (Or. 101), there never was such a one [you will say]: granted (let there not have been).
 - në sit summum malum dolor, malum certë est (Tusc. ii. 14), granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.

NOTE.—The concessive subjunctive with quamvis and licet is originally hortatory (\S 527. a, b).

For other methods of expressing Concession, see § 527.

For the Hortatory Subjunctive denoting a Proviso, see § 528. a.

1 Many scholars regard the concessive subjunctive as a development of the Optative Subjunctive in a wish.

Optative Subjunctive

441. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time. The negative is nē:—

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), as true as I live, so may I live.

ne vīvam sī sciō (id. iv. 16. 8), I wish I may not live if I know.

dī tē perduint (Deiot. 21), the gods confound thee!

valeant, valeant cīvēs meī; sint incolumēs (Mil. 93), farewell, farewell to my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.

dī facerent sine patre forem (Ov. M. viii. 72), would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!

a. The perfect subjunctive in a wish is archaic: —

di faxint (Fam. xiv. 3. 3), may the gods grant.

quod dī omen averterint (Phil. xii. 14, in a religious formula), and may the gods avert this omen.

442. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particle utinam; so regularly in the imperfect and pluperfect:—

falsus utinam vātēs sim (Liv. xxi. 10. 10), I wish I may be a false prophet. utinam Clōdius vīveret (Mil. 103), would that Clodius were now alive. utinam mē mortuum vīdissēs (Q. Fr. i. 3. 1), would you had seen me dead. utinam nē vērē scrīberem (Fam. v. 17. 3), would that I were not writing the truth.

Note. — Utinam non is occasionally used instead of utinam no: as, — utinam susceptus non essem (Att. ix. 9. 3), would that I had not been born.

- a. In poetry and old Latin uti or ut often introduces the optative subjunctive; and in poetry si or ō si with the subjunctive sometimes expresses a wish:
 - ut pereat positum robigine telum (Hor. S. ii. 1. 43), may the weapon unused perish with rust.
 - ō sī angulus ille accēdat (id. ii. 6. 8), O if that corner might only be added!
 sī nunc sē nōbīs ille aureus rāmus ostendat (Aen. vi. 187), if now that golden
 branch would only show itself to us!

NOTE 1.—The subjunctive with uti (ut) or utinam was originally deliberative, meaning how may I, etc. (§ 444). The subjunctive with $s\bar{s}$ or \bar{s} $s\bar{s}$ is a protasis (§ 512. a), the apodosis not being expressed.

NOTE 2.— The subjunctive of wish without a particle is seldom found in the imperfect or pluperfect except by sequence of tenses in Indirect Discourse (§ 585): as,—ac venerāta Cerēs, ita culmō surgeret altō (Hor. S. ii. 2. 124), and Ceres worshipped [with libations] that so she might rise with tall stalk. [In addressing the goddess directly the prayer would be: ita surgās.]

- b. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive:
 - velim tibi persuādeās (Fam. ix. 13. 2), I should like to have you believe (I should wish that you would persuade yourself).
 - dē Menedēmö vellem vērum fuisset, dē rēgīnā velim vērum sit (Att. xv. 4. 4), about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I wish it may be. nöllem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10. 2), I wish the time never had come.
 - mällem Cerberum metueres (Tusc. i. 12), I had rather have had you afraid of Cerberus (I should have preferred that you feared Cerberus).

Note. — Velim etc., in this use, are either potential subjunctives, or apodoses with the protasis omitted (§ 447.1. N.). The thing wished may be regarded as a substantive clause used as object of the verb of wishing (§ 565. N.¹).

Deliberative Subjunctive

- 443. The Subjunctive was used in sentences of interrogative form, at first when the speaker wished information in regard to the will or desire of the person addressed. The mood was therefore hortatory in origin. But such questions when addressed by the speaker to himself, as if asking his own advice, become deliberative or, not infrequently, merely exclamatory. In such cases the mood often approaches the meaning of the Potential (see § 445). In these uses the subjunctive is often called Peliberative or Dubitative.
- 444. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing's being done. The negative is non.

quid agam, iūdicēs? quō mē vertam (Verr. v. 2), what am I to do, judges? whither shall I turn?

etiamne eam salūtem (Pl. Rud. 1275), shall I greet her?

quid hoc homine facias? quod supplicium dignum libidini êius invenias (Verr. ii. 40), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise

for his wantonness?
an ego non venirem (Phil. ii. 3), what, should I not have come?
quid dicerem (Att. vi. 3. 9), what was I to say?

quis enim celaverit ignem (Ov. H. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

NOTE.—The hortatory origin of some of these questions is obvious. Thus,—quid faciāmus?—faciāmus [aliquid], quid? let us do—what? (Compare the expanded form quid vīs faciāmus? what do you wish us to do?) Once established, it was readily transferred to the past: quid faciam? what AM I to do? quid facerem? what WAS I to do? Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis (cf. § 517).

a. In many cases the question has become a mere exclamation, rejecting a suggested possibility:

mihi umquam bonorum praesidium defutūrum putārem (Mil. 94), could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me!

Note. — The indicative is sometimes used in deliberative questions: as, — quid ago, what am I to do?

Potential Subjunctive

- 445. Of the two principal uses of the Subjunctive in independent sentences (cf. § 436), the second, or Potential Subjunctive, is found in a variety of sentence-forms having as their common element the fact that the mood represents the action as merely conceived or possible, not as desired (hortatory, optative) or real (indicative). Some of these uses are very old and may go back to the Indo-European parent speech, but no satisfactory connection between the Potential and the Hortatory and Optative Subjunctive has been traced. There is no single English equivalent for the Potential Subjunctive; the mood must be rendered, according to circumstances, by the auxiliaries would, should, may, might, can, could.
- 446. The Potential Subjunctive is used to suggest an action as possible or conceivable. The negative is non.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate future; the Imperfect (occasionally the Perfect) to past time; the Pluperfect (which is rare) to what might have happened.

- 447. The Potential Subjunctive has the following uses:—
- 1. In cautious or modest assertions in the first person singular of expressions of saying, thinking, or wishing (present or perfect):—

pāce tuā dīxerim (Mil. 103), I would say by your leave.

haud sciam an (Lael. 51), I should incline to think.

tū velim sīc exīstimēs (Fam. xii. 6), I should like you to think so.

certum affirmāre non ausim (Liv. iii. 23), I should not dare to assert as sure.

Note.—Vellem, nöllem, or mällem expressing an unfulfilled wish in present time may be classed as independent potential subjunctive or as the apodosis of an unexpressed condition (§ 521): as — vellem adesset M. Antōnius (Phil. i. 16), I could wish Antony were here.

2. In the indefinite second person singular of verbs of saying, thinking, and the like (present or imperfect):—

crēdās non dē puero scriptum sed ā puero (Plin. Ep. iv. 7. 7), you would think that it was written not about a boy but by a boy.

crēderēs victos (Liv. ii. 43. 9), you would have thought them conquered.

reos diceres (id. ii. 35. 5), you would have said they were culprits.

vidērēs susurrōs (Hor. S. ii. 8. 77), you might have seen them whispering (lit. whispers).

freto assimilare possis (Ov. M. v. 6), you might compare it to a sea.

3. With other verbs, in all persons, when some word or phrase in the context implies that the action is expressed as merely possible or conceivable:—

¹ The name *Potential Subjunctive* is not precisely descriptive, but is fixed in grammatical usage.

nil ego contalerim iücundo sānus amīco (Hor. S. i. 5. 44), when in my senses I should compare nothing with an interesting friend.

fortunam citius reperias quam retineas (Pub. Syr. 168), you may sooner find fortune than keep it.

aliquis dicat (Ter. And. 640), somebody may say.

Note.—In this use the subjunctive may be regarded as the apodosis of an undeveloped protasis. When the conditional idea becomes clearer, it finds expression in a formal protasis, and a conditional sentence is developed.

a. Forsitan, perhaps, regularly takes the Potential Subjunctive except in later Latin and in poetry, where the Indicative is also common:—

forsitan quaeratis qui iste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 5), you may perhaps inquire what this alarm is.

forsitan temere fecerim (id. 31), perhaps I have acted rashly.

Note. — The subjunctive clause with forsitan (= fors sit an) was originally an Indirect Question: it would be a chance whether, etc.

b. Fortasse, perhaps, is regularly followed by the Indicative; sometimes, however, by the Subjunctive, but chiefly in later Latin:—
quaeres fortasse (Fam. xv. 4. 18), perhaps you will ask.

Note.—Other expressions for perhaps are (1) forsan (chiefly poetical; construed with the indicative or the subjunctive, more commonly the indicative), fors (rare and poetical; construed with either the indicative or the subjunctive). Forsit (or fors sit) occurs once (Hor. S. i. 6. 49) and takes the subjunctive. Fortasse is sometimes followed by the infinitive with subject accusative in Plautus and Terence. Fortassis (rare; construed like fortasse) and fortasse an (very rare; construed with the subjunctive) are also found.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

448. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties: —

consulite vobis, prospicite patriae, conservate vos (Cat. iv. 3), have a care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.

dīc, Mārce Tulli, sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.

tē ipsum concute (Hor. S. i. 3. 35), examine yourself.

vīve, valēque (id. ii. 5. 110), farewell, bless you (live and be well)!

miserëre animi non digna ferentis (Aen. ii. 144), pity a soul bearing undeserved misfortune.

a. The third person of the imperative is antiquated or poetic:—

ollis salūs populi suprēma lēx estō (Legg. iii. 8), the safety of the people shall be their first law.

iūsta imperia suntā, eīsque cīvēs modestē pārentō (id. iii. 6), let there be law-ful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.

Note. — In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 439).

- 449. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to future time:—
- 1. In connection with some adverb or other expression that indicates at what time in the future the action of the imperative shall take place. So especially with a future, a future perfect indicative, or (in poetry and early Latin) with a present imperative:—

crās petitō, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 769), ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given. cum valētūdinī consulueris, tum consulito nāvigātionī (Fam. xvi. 4. 3), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.

- Phyllida mitte mihī, meus est nātālis, Iollā; cum faciam vitulā pro frūgibus, ipse venīto (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I [shall] sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.
- dīc quibus in terrīs, etc., et Phyllida solus habēto (id. iii. 107), tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.
- 2. In general directions serving for all time, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills:—

is iūris cīvīlis cūstōs estō (Legg. iii. 8), let him (the prætor) be the guardian of civil right.

Boreā flante, në arātō, sēmen në iacitō (Plin. H. N. xviii. 334), when the north wind blows, plough not nor sow your seed.

a. The verbs sciō, meminī, and habeō (in the sense of consider) regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present:—

fīliolō mē auctum scītō (Att. i. 2), learn that I am blessed with a little boy. sīc habētō, mī Tirō (Fam. xvi. 4. 4), so understand it, my good Tiro. dē pallā mementō, amābō (Pl. Asin. 939), remember, dear, about the gown.

b. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; and quin (why not?) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command:—

sī quid acciderit novī, facies ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.
quīn accipis (Ter. Haut. 832), here, take it (why not take it?).

c. Instead of the simple Imperative, cūrā ut, fac (fac ut), or velim, followed by the subjunctive (§ 565), is often used, especially in colloquial language:—

cūrā ut Romae sīs (Att. i. 2), take care to be at Rome.

fac ut valētūdinem cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), see that you take care of your health. domī adsītis facite (Ter. Eun. 506), be at home, do.

eum mihi velim mittās (Att. viii. 11), I wish you would send it to me.

For commands in Indirect Discourse, see § 588.

For the Imperative with the force of a Conditional Clause, see § 521. b.

Prohibition (Negative Command)

- 450. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by noli with the Infinitive, (2) by cave with the Present Subjunctive, or (3) by ne with the Perfect Subjunctive:—1
 - (1) noli putare (Lig. 33), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose). noli impudens esse (Fam. xii. 30. 1), don't be shameless. nolite cogere socios (Verr. ii. 1. 82), do not compel the allies.
 - (2) cavē putēs (Att. vii. 20), don't suppose (take care lest you suppose). cavē īgnōscās (Lig. 14), do not pardon.

cave festines (Fam. xvi. 12.6), do not be in haste.

(3) në necesse habueris (Att. xvi. 2. 5), do not regard it as necessary.

nē sīs admīrātus (Fam. vii. 18. 3), do not be surprised.

hōc facitō; hōc nē fēceris (Div. ii. 127), thou shalt do this, thou shalt not do that.

nē Apellae quidem dīxeris (Fam. vii. 25. 2), do not tell Apella even.

në vos quidem mortem timueritis (Tusc. i. 98), nor must you fear death.

All three of these constructions are well established in classic prose. The first, which is the most ceremonious, occurs oftenest; the third, though not discourteous, is usually less formal and more peremptory than the others.

Note 1.—Instead of noli the poets sometimes use other imperatives of similar meaning (cf. § 457. a):—

parce piās scelerāre manūs (Aen. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.

cētera mitte loquī (Hor. Epod. 13. 7), forbear to say the rest.

fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), do not inquire.

Note 2.— Cave në is sometimes used in prohibitions; also vidë në and (colloquially) fac në: as,— fac në quid aliud curës (Fam. xvi. 11), see that you attend to nothing else.

Note 3.— The present subjunctive with ne and the perfect with cave are found in old writers; ne with the present is common in poetry at all periods:—

në exspectëtis (Pl. Ps. 1234), do not wait.

në metuas (Mart. Ep. i. 70. 13), do not fear.

cave quicquam responderis (Pl. Am. 608), do not make any reply.

Note 4. — Other negatives sometimes take the place of nē: —

nihil īgnoveris (Mur. 65), grant no pardon (pardon nothing).

nec mihi illud dīxeris (Fin. i. 25), and do not say this to me.

NOTE 5. — The regular connective, and do not, is neve.

a. The Present Imperative with në is used in prohibitions by early writers and the poets:—

në timë (Pl. Curc. 520), don't be afraid. nimium në crëde colori (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion. equo në crëdite (Aen. ii. 48), trust not the horse.

b. The Future Imperative with ne is used in prohibitions in laws and formal precepts (see § 449. 2).

In prohibitions the subjunctive with ne is hortatory; that with cave is an object clause (cf. §§ 450. N. 2, 565. N. 1).

INFINITIVE MOOD

451. The Infinitive is properly a noun denoting the action of the verb abstractly. It differs, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points: (1) it often admits the distinction of tense; (2) it is modified by adverbs, not by adjectives; (3) it governs the same case as its verb; (4) it is limited to special constructions.

The Latin Infinitive is the dative or locative case of such a noun 1 and was originally used to denote Purpose; but it has in many constructions developed into a sub-

stitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use.

In its use as a verb, the Infinitive may take a Subject Accusative (§ 397. e), originally the object of another verb on which the Infinitive depended. Thus iubeo të valëre is literally I command you for being well (cf. substantive clauses, § 562. n.).

Infinitive as Noun

- 452. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative.²
 - 1. As Subject: —

dolere malum est (Fin. v. 84), to suffer pain is an evil.

bellum est sua vitia nosse (Att. ii. 17), it's a fine thing to know one's own faults.

praestat componere fluctus (Aen. i. 135), it is better to calm the waves.

- 2. In Apposition with the Subject:
 - proinde quasi iniūriam facere id dēmum esset imperiö ūtī (Sall. Cat. 12), just as if this and this alone, to commit injustice, were to use power. [Here facere is in apposition with id.]
- 3. As Predicate Nominative:
 - id est convenienter nātūrae vīvere (Fin. iv. 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. ūtī in the last example.]
- Note 1.—An infinitive may be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative (§ 393), or as Appositive with such Direct Object:
 - istuc ipsum non esse cum fueris miserrimum puto (Tusc. i. 12), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been. [Here istuc ipsum belongs to the noun non esse.]
 - miserārī, invidēre, gestīre, laetārī, haec omnia morbos Graecī appellant (id. iii. 7), to feel pity, envy, desire, joy,—all these things the Greeks call diseases. [Here the infinitives are in apposition with haec.]
- ¹ The ending -ĕ (amāre, monēre, regere, audīre) was apparently locative, the ending -ī (amārī, monērī, regī, audīrī) apparently dative; but this difference of case had no significance for Latin syntax. The general Latin restriction of the ī-infinitives to the passive was not a primitive distinction, but grew up in the course of time.
- ² In these constructions the abstract idea expressed by the infinitive is represented as having some quality or belonging to some thing.

- Note 2.—An Appositive or Predicate noun or adjective used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus,—non esse cupidum pecunia est (Par. 51), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand. [No Subject Accusative.]
- a. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs. But sometimes, especially in poetry, it is used as the subject of verbs which are apparently more active in meaning:
 - quos omnis eadem cupere, eadem odisse, eadem metuere, in unum coegit (Iug. 31), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.
 - ingenuās didicisse fidēliter artīs ēmollit morēs (Ov. P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.
 - posse loqui ëripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.
- 453. Rarely the Infinitive is used exactly like the Accusative of a noun:
 - beātē vivere alii in aliō, vōs in voluptāte pōnitis (Fin. ii. 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.
 - quam multa... facimus causā amīcorum, precārī ab indīgno, supplicāre, etc. (Lael. 57), how many things we do for our friends' sake, ask favors from an unworthy person, resort to entreaty, etc.
 - nihil exploratum habeas, ne amare quidem aut amari (id. 97), you have nothing assured, not even loving and being loved.

NOTE. — Many complementary and other constructions approach a proper accusative use of the infinitive, but their development has been different from that of the examples above. Thus, — avāritia . . . superbiam, crūdēlitātem, deos neglegere, omnia vēnālia habēre ēdocuit (Sall. Cat. 10), avarice taught pride, cruelty, to neglect the gods, and to hold everything at a price.

Infinitive as Apparent Subject of Impersonals

454. The Infinitive is used as the apparent Subject with many impersonal verbs and expressions:

Such are libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, visum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est, etc.:—

libet mihi considerare (Quinct. 48), it suits me to consider.

necesse est mori (Tusc. ii. 2), it is necessary to die.

quid attinet gloriose loqui nisi constanter loquare (Fin. ii. 89), what good does it do to talk boastfully unless you speak consistently?

neque më vixisse paenitet (id. 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived. gubernare më taedëbat (Att. ii. 7. 4), I was tired of being pilot.

NOTE.—This use is a development of the Complementary Infinitive (§ 456); but the infinitives approach the subject construction and may be conveniently regarded as the subjects of the impersonals.

- 455. With impersonal verbs and expressions that take the Infinitive as an apparent subject, the personal subject of the action may be expressed
 - 1. By a Dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase:
 - rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), they ask that it be allowed them to do this.
 - non lubet enim mihi deplorare vitam (Cat. M. 84), for it does not please me to lament my life.
 - visum est mihi de senectute aliquid conscribere (id. 1), it seemed good to me to write something about old age.
 - quid est tam secundum nātūram quam senibus ēmorī (id. 71), what is so much in accordance with nature as for old men to die?
 - exstingui homini suo tempore optabile est (id. 85), for a man to die at the appointed time is desirable.
- 2. By an Accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive or the object of the impersonal:
 - sī licet vīvere eum quem Sex. Naevius non volt (Quinct. 94), if it is allowed a man to live against the will of Sextus Nævius.
 - nonne oportuit praescisse me ante (Ter. And. 239), ought I not to have known beforehand?
 - örātörem īrāscī minimē decet (Tusc. iv. 54), it is particularly unbecoming for an orator to lose his temper.
 - pudëret më dicere (N. D. i. 109), I should be ashamed to say.
 - consilia ineunt quorum eos in vestigio paenitere necesse est (B. G. iv. 5), they form plans for which they must at once be sorry.
- Note. Libet, placet, and visum est take the dative only; oportet, pudet, piget, and generally decet, the accusative only; licet and necesse est take either case.
- a. A predicate noun or adjective is commonly in the Accusative; but with licet regularly, and with other verbs occasionally, the Dative is used:
 - expedit bonās esse vōbīs (Ter. Haut. 388), it is for your advantage to be good. licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclī (Tusc. i. 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to Themistocles to be inactive).
 - mihi neglegentī esse non licet (Att. i. 17. 6), I must not be negligent. [But also neglegentem.]
 - cūr his esse liberos non licet (Flacc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?
 - non est omnibus stantibus necesse dicere (Marc. 33), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.
- Note. When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (one, anybody), a predicate noun or adjective is regularly in the accusative (cf. § 452. 3. N.²): as, vel pace vel bello clarum fieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.

Complementary Infinitive

456. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative.

Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like:—

hōc queō dicere (Cat. M. 32), this I can say.

mitto quaerere (Rosc. Am. 53), I omit to ask.

vereor laudăre praesentem (N. D. i. 58), I fear to praise a man to his face.

ōrō ut mātūrēs venīre (Att. iv. 1), I beg you will make haste to come.

oblivisci non possum quae volo (Fin. ii. 104), I cannot forget that which I wish.

desine id me docere (Tusc. ii. 29), cease to teach me that.

dicere solebat, he used to say.

audeo dicere, I venture to say.

loqui posse coepi, I began to be able to speak.

Note.—The peculiarity of the Complementary Infinitive construction is that no Subject Accusative is in general admissible or conceivable. But some infinitives usually regarded as objects can hardly be distinguished from this construction when they have no subject expressed. Thus volo dicere and volo me dicere mean the same thing, I wish to speak, but the latter is object-infinitive, while the former is not apparently different in origin and construction from queo dicere (complementary infinitive), and again volo eum dicere, I wish him to speak, is essentially different from either (cf. § 563. b).

457. Many verbs take either a Subjunctive Clause or a Complementary Infinitive, without difference of meaning.

Such are verbs signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like (cf. § 563):—

decernere optabat (Q. C. iii. 11. 1), he was eager to decide.

optāvit ut tollerētur (Off. iii. 94), he was eager to be taken up.

oppügnäre contendit (B. G. v. 21), he strove to take by storm.

contendit ut caperet (id. v. 8), he strove to take.

bellum gerere constituit (id. iv. 6), he decided to carry on war.

constitueram ut manerem (Att. xvi. 10. 1), I had decided to remain.

Note 1. — For the infinitive with subject accusative used with some of these verbs instead of a complementary infinitive, see § 563.

NOTE 2. — Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do: —

eos quos tütäri debent deserunt (Off. i. 28), they forsake those whom they ought to protect.

aveo pugnare (Att. ii. 18. 3), I'm anxious to fight.

a. In poetry and later writers many verbs may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose:—

furit të reperire (Hor. Od. i. 15. 27), he rages to find thee. [A forcible way of saying cupit (§§ 457, 563. b).]

saevit exstinguere nomen (Ov. M. i. 200), he rages to blot out the name.

fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), forbear to ask (cf. § 450. n. 1).

parce pias scelerare manus (Aen. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.

458. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb:—

fierique studébam êius prüdentiā doctior (Lael. 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.

sciō quam soleās esse occupātus (Fam. xvi. 21. 7), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).

brevis esse laboro, obscurus fio (Hor. A. P. 25), I struggle to be brief, I become obscure.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative

459. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 579):—

dicit montem ab hostibus tenëri (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy. [Direct: mons ab hostibus tenëtur.]

Infinitive of Purpose

- 460. In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.
- a. The infinitive is used in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause after habeo, do, ministro:—

tantum habeō pollicērī (Fam. i. 5 A. 3), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicear.]

ut Iovi bibere ministraret (Tusc. i. 65), to serve Jove with wine (to drink). meridie bibere dato (Cato R. R. 89), give (to) drink at noonday.

b. Paratus, suetus, and their compounds, and a few other participles (used as adjectives), take the infinitive like the verbs from which they come:—

id quod parātī sunt facere (Quint. 8), that which they are ready to do. adstēfactī superārī (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered. currū succēdere suētī (Aen. iii. 541), used to being harnessed to the chariot. copiās bellāre consuētās (B. Afr. 78), forces accustomed to fighting.

- Note.—In prose these words more commonly take the Gerund or Gerundive construction (§ 503 ff.) either in the genitive, the dative, or the accusative with ad:—
 insuētus nāvigandī (B. G. v. 6), unused to making voyages.
 alendīs līberīs suētī (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children.
 corpora īnsuēta ad onera portanda (B. C. i. 78), bodies unused to carry burdens.
- c. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction:—

filius intro iit videre quid agat (Ter. Hec. 345), your son has gone in to see what he is doing. [In prose: the supine visum.]

non ferro Libycos populare Penatis venimus (Aen. i. 527), we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes.

loricam donat habere viro (id. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to wear. [In prose: habendam.]

Note. — So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.

For the Infinitive used instead of a Substantive Clause of Purpose, see § 457.

For tempus est abire, see § 504. N.².

Peculiar Infinitives

461. Many Adjectives take the Infinitive in poetry, following a Greek idiom:—

dūrus componere versūs (Hor. S. i. 4. 8), harsh in composing verse. cantārī dīgnus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose: quī cantētur.] fortis trāctāre serpentis (Hor. Od. i. 37. 26), brave to handle serpents. cantāre perītī (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song. facilēs aurem praebēre (Prop. iii. 14. 15), ready to lend an ear. nescia vincī pectora (Aen. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield. tē vidēre aegrōtī (Plaut. Trin. 75), sick of seeing you.

- a. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result:
 - fingit equum docilem magister ire viam qua monstret eques (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64), the trainer makes the horse gentle so as to go in the road the rider points out.
 - hīc levāre... pauperem laboribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he, when called, hears, so as to relieve the poor man of his troubles.

Note. — These poetic constructions were originally regular and belong to the Infinitive as a noun in the Dative or Locative case (§ 451). They had been supplanted, however, by other more formal constructions, and were afterwards restored in part through Greek influence.

b. The infinitive occasionally occurs as a pure noun limited by a demonstrative, a possessive, or some other adjective:—

hoc non dolore (Fin. ii. 18), this freedom from pain. [Cf. totum hoc beate vivere (Tusc. v. 33), this whole matter of the happy life.]

nostrum vivere (Pers. i. 9), our life (to live).

scire tuum (id. i. 27), your knowledge (to know).

Exclamatory Infinitive

- 462. The Infinitive, with Subject Accusative, may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 397. d):
 - tē in tantās aerumnās propter mē incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas, that you should have fallen into such grief for me!
 - mëne incepto dësistere victam (Aen. i. 37), what! I beaten desist from my purpose?
- Note 1. The interrogative particle -ne is often attached to the emphatic word (as in the second example).
- Note 2. The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time (§ 486).
- a. A subjunctive clause, with or without ut, is often used elliptically in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative -ne:—

quamquam quid loquor? tē ut ülla rēs frangat (Cat. i. 22), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!

egone ut të interpellem (Tusc. ii. 42), what, I interrupt you?

ego tibi irāscerer (Q. Fr. i. 3), I angry with you?

Note. — The Infinitive in exclamations usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.

Historical Infinitive

- 463. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the Nominative:
 - tum Catilina pollicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).
 - ego īnstāre ut mihi respondēret (Verr. ii. 188), I kept urging him to answer me. pars cēdere, aliī īnsequī; neque sīgna neque ōrdinēs observāre; ubi quemque perīculum cēperat, ibi resistere ac prōpulsāre; arma, tēla, equī, virī, hostēs atque cīvēs permixtī; nihil cōnsiliō neque imperiō agī; fors omnia regere (Iug. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook them, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.
- NOTE. This construction is not strictly historical, but rather descriptive, and is never used to state a mere historical fact. It is rarely found in subordinate clauses. Though occurring in most of the writers of all periods, it is most frequent in the historians Sallust, Livy, Tacitus. It does not occur in Suetonius.
- ¹ This construction is elliptical; that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of saying etc. is expressed or even, perhaps, implied (compare the French dire que). Passages like hancine ego ad rem nātam miseram mē memorābō? (Plaut. Rud. 188) point to the origin of the construction.

TENSES

464. The number of possible Tenses is very great. For in each of the three times, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented as going on, completed, or beginning; as habitual or isolated; as defined in time or indefinite (aoristic); as determined with reference to the time of the speaker, or as not itself so determined but as relative to some time which is determined; and the past and future times may be near or remote. Thus a scheme of thirty or more tenses might be devised.

But, in the development of forms, which always takes place gradually, no language finds occasion for more than a small part of these. The most obvious distinctions, according to our habits of thought, appear in the following scheme:—

1. Definite (fixing the time of the action)		2. Indefinite
INCOMPLETE	COMPLETE	NARRATIVE
Present: a. I am writing.	d. I have written.	g. I write.
Past: b. I was writing.	e. I had written.	h. I wrote.
Future: c. I shall be writing.	f. I shall have written.	i. I shall mrite.

Most languages disregard some of these distinctions, and some make other distinctions not here given. The Indo-European parent speech had a Present tense to express a and g, a Perfect to express d, an Aorist to express h, a Future to express c and i, and an Imperfect to express b. The Latin, however, confounded the Perfect and Aorist in a single form (the Perfect scripsi), thus losing all distinction of form between d and h, and probably in a great degree the distinction of meaning. The nature of this confusion may be seen by comparing dixi, dicavi, and didici (all Perfects derived from the same root, DIC), with $\delta \delta ei \xi a$, Skr. adiksham, $\delta \epsilon \delta ei \chi a$, Skr. $dide \gamma a$. Latin also developed two new forms, those for e (scripseram) and f (scripsero), and thus possessed six tenses, as seen in § 154. c.

The lines between these six tenses in Latin are not hard and fast, nor are they precisely the same that we draw in English. Thus in many verbs the form corresponding to I have written (d) is used for those corresponding to I am writing (a) and I write (g) in a slightly different sense, and the form corresponding to I had written (e) is used in like manner for that corresponding to I was writing (b). Again, the Latin often uses the form for I shall have written (f) instead of that for I shall write (i). Thus, novī, I have learned, is used for I know; constitutent, he had taken his position, for he stood; cognovero, I shall have learned, for I shall be aware. In general a writer may take his own point of view.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

INCOMPLETE ACTION

PRESENT TENSE

465. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as now taking place or existing, and so (2) as incomplete in present time, or (3) as indefinite, referring to no particular time, but denoting a general truth:—

- senātus haec intellegit, consul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. 2), the senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.
- tibi concēdo meās sēdīs (Div. i. 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).
- exspecto quid velis (Ter. And. 34), I await your pleasure (what you wish).
- tü actionem instituis, ille aciem instruit (Mur. 22), you arrange a case, he arrays an army. [The present is here used of regular employment.]
- minora di neglegunt (N. D. iii. 86), the gods disregard trifles. [General truth.]
- obsequium amīcos, vēritās odium parit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]
- Note. The present of a general truth is sometimes called the Gnomic Present.
- a. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant:—
 - Epicūrus vērō ea dīcit (Tusc. ii. 17), but Epicurus says such things.
 - apud illum Ulixes lämentätur in volnere (id. ii. 49), in him (Sophocles) Ulysses laments over his wound.
 - Polyphēmum Homērus cum ariete colloquentem facit (id. v. 115), Homer brings in (makes) Polyphemus talking with his ram.

Present with iam divi etc.

466. The Present with expressions of duration of time (especially iam div, iam dvdum) denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. \S 471. b).

In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English:—

- iam diū ignoro quid agas (Fam. vii. 9), for a long time I have not known what you were doing.
- tē iam dūdum hortor (Cat. i. 12), I have long been urging you.
- patimur multos iam annos (Verr. v. 126), we suffer now these many years. [The Latin perfect would imply that we no longer suffer.]
- anni sunt octo cum ista causa versătur (cf. Clu. 82), it is now eight years that this case has been in hand.
- annum iam audis Cratippum (Off. i. 1), for a year you have been a hearer of Cratippus.
- adhüc Plancius mē retinet (Fam. xiv. 1. 3), so far Plancius has kept me here.
- NOTE 1.—The difference in the two idioms is that the English states the beginning and leaves the continuance to be inferred, while the Latin states the continuance and leaves the beginning to be inferred. Compare he has long suffered (and still suffers) with he still suffers (and has suffered long).
- Note 2.—Similarly the Present Imperative with iam dūdum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek): as,—iam dūdum sūmite poenās (Aen. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.

Conative Present

467. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed at all (Conative Present, cf. § 471. c):—

iam iamque manu tenet (Aen. ii. 580), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.

dēnsos fertur in hostīs (id. ii. 511), he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe. dēcerno quinquāgintā diērum supplicātiones (Phil. xiv. 29), I move for fifty days' thanksgiving. [Cf. senātus dēcrēvit, the senate ordained.]

Present for Future

468. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future:—

imusne sessum (De Or. iii. 17), shall we take a seat? (are we going to sit?) hodië uxōrem dūcis (Ter. And. 321), are you to be married to-day? quod sī fīt, pereō funditus (id. 244), if this happens, I am utterly undone. ecquid mē adiuvās (Clu. 71), won't you give me a little help? in iūs vocō tē. nōn eō. nōn īs (Pl. Asin. 480), I summon you to the court. I won't go. You won't?

Note.—Eō and its compounds are especially frequent in this use (cf. where are you going to-morrow? and the Greek $\epsilon l \mu$ in a future sense). Verbs of necessity, possibility, wish, and the like (as possum, volō, etc.) also have reference to the future.

For other uses of the Present in a future sense, see under Conditions (§ 516. a. n.), antequam and priusquam (§ 551. c), dum (§ 553. n.2), and § 444. a. n.

Historical Present

- 469. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect:
 - affertur nūntius Syrācūsās; curritur ad praetōrium; Cleomenēs in pūblicō esse nōn audet; inclūdit sē domī (Verr. v. 92), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.

Note.—This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (repraesentātiō, § 585. b. n.).

For the Present Indicative with dum, while, see § 556.

- a. The present may be used for the perfect in a summary enumeration of past events (Annalistic Present):—
 - Roma interim crescit Albae ruinis: duplicatur civium numerus; Caelius additur urbi mons (Liv. i. 30), Rome meanwhile grows as a result of the fall of Alba: the number of citizens is doubled; the Cælian hill is added to the town.

IMPERFECT TENSE

470. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time:—

hunc audiebant antea (Manil. 13), they used to hear of him before.

[Socrates] ita censebat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 72), Socrates thought so (habit-ually), and so he spoke (then).

prūdēns esse putābātur (Lael. 6), he was (generally) thought wise. [The perfect would refer to some particular case, and not to a state of things.] iamque rubēscēbat Aurōra (Aen. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing. āra vetus stābat (Ov. M. vi. 326), an old altar stood there.

Note. — The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as in progress or a state of things as actually observed. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus rex erat and rex fuit may often be used indifferently; but the former describes the condition while the latter only states it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite:—

Haedui graviter ferebant, neque legatos ad Caesarem mittere audebant (B. G. v. 6), the Hædui were displeased, and did not dare to send envoys to Cæsar.

[Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But, —

id tulit factum graviter Indūtiomārus (id. v. 4), Indutiomarus was displeased at this action. [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]

aedificia vīcosque habēbant (id. iv. 4), they had buildings and villages.

- 471. The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. Hence all the meanings which the Present has derived from the continuance of the action belong also to the Imperfect in reference to past time.
 - a. The Imperfect is used in descriptions:—

 erant omnino itinera duo... mons altissimus impendent (B. G.

erant omnīnō itinera duo... mōns altissimus impendēbat (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways... a very high mountain overhung.

b. With iam diū, iam dūdum, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 466).

In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect:—

iam dūdum flēbam (Ov. M. iii. 656), I had been weeping for a long time. cōpiās quās diū comparābant (Fam. xi. 13. 5), the forces which they had long been getting ready.

c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (Inceptive Imperfect), or as attempted or only intended (Conative Imperfect; cf. § 467):—

- in exsilium ēiciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 14), was I trying to send into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?
- hunc igitur diem sibi proponens Milo, cruentis manibus ad illa augusta centuriarum auspicia veniebat (Mil. 43), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), etc.?
- sī licitum esset veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), they were coming if it had been allowed (they were on the point of coming, and would have done so if, etc.).
- NOTE. To this head may be referred the imperfect with iam, denoting the beginning of an action or state: as, iamque arva tenebant ultima (Aen. vi. 477), and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.
- d. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing:
 - ō tū quoque aderās (Ter. Ph. 858), oh, you are here too!
 - ehem, tün hic erās, mi Phaedria (Ter. Eun. 86), what! you here, Phædria? ā miser! quantā laborābās Charybdī (Hor. Od. i. 27. 19), unhappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it]!
- e. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue by the comic poets where later writers would employ the Perfect:
 - ad amīcum Calliclem quoi rem aībat mandāsse hīc suam (Pl. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.
 - praesāgībat mī animus frūstrā mē īre quom exībam domō (Pl. Aul. 178), my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.
- Note. So, in conversation the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying) is common in classic prose:
 - at medicī quoque, ita enim dīcēbās, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 15), but physicians also,—for that is what you were saying just now,—are often mistaken.
 - haec mihi ferë in mentem veniëbant (id. ii. 67, 168), this is about what occurred to me, etc. [In a straightforward narration this would be venerunt.]
- f. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary could or would:
 - itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchrōs illōs ministrātōrēs aspiciēbat (Tusc. v. 62), therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves. [In this case did not would not express the idea of continued prevention of enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]
 - nec enim dum eram vöbiscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. M. 79), for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]
 - Lentulus satis erat fortis örātör, sed cögitandī nön ferēbat labörem (Brut. 268), Lentulus was bold enough as an orator, but could not endure the exertion of thinking hard.

For the Epistolary Imperfect, see § 479; for the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis contrary to fact, see § 517. b. c.

FUTURE TENSE

- 472. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.
 - a. The Future may have the force of an Imperative (§ 449. b).
- b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently expressed by the main clause: cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 547).

sānābimur sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish (cf. § 516. a).

Note. — But the Present is common in future protases (§ 516. a. n.).

COMPLETED ACTION

PERFECT TENSE

Perfect Definite and Historical Perfect

473. The Perfect denotes an action either as now completed (Perfect Definite), or as having taken place at some undefined point of past time (Historical or Aoristic Perfect).

The Perfect Definite corresponds in general to the English Perfect with have; the Historical Perfect to the English Preterite (or Past):

- (1) ut ego fēcī, qui Graecās litterās senex didicī (Cat. M. 26), as I have done. who have learned Greek in my old age.
- diüturni silenti finem hodiernus dies attulit (Marc. 1), this day has put an end to my long-continued silence.
- (2) tantum bellum extrēmā hieme apparāvit, ineunte vēre suscēpit, mediā aestāte confēcit (Manil. 35), so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.

Note. — The distinction between these two uses is represented by two forms in most other Indo-European languages, but was almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans. It must be noticed, however, on account of the marked distinction in English and also because of certain differences in the sequence of tenses.

- a. The Indefinite Present, denoting a customary action or a general truth (§ 465), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring to time antecedent to that of the main clause:
 - qui in compedibus corporis semper fuërunt, etiam cum solüti sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 75), they who have always been in the fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.
 - simul ac mihi collibitum est, praestō est imāgō (N. D. i. 108), as soon as I have taken a fancy, the image is before my eyes.

haec morte effugiuntur, etiam si non ëvënërunt, tamen quia pessunt ëvenire (Tusc. i. 86), these things are escaped by death even if they have not [yet] happened, because they still may happen.

NOTE. — This use of the perfect is especially common in the protasis of General Conditions in present time (\S 518. b).

474. The Perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists:

fuit ista quondam in hāc rē pūblicā virtūs (Cat. i. 3), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.

habuit, non habet (Tusc, i. 87), he had, he has no longer.

fīlium habeō... immo habuī; nunc habeam necne incertumst (Ter. Haut. 93), I have a son, no, I had one; whether I have now or not is uncertain. fuimus Trōes, fuit Īlium (Aen. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is no more.

Special Uses of the Perfect

475. The Perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect):—

qui studet contingere metam multa tulit fecitque (Hor. A. P. 412), he who aims to reach the goal, first bears and does many things.

non aeris acervus et aurī dēdūxit corpore febrīs (id. Ep. i. 2. 47), the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.

NOTE. — The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that something which never did happen in any known case never does happen, and never will (cf. the English "Faint heart never won fair lady"); or, without a negative, that what has once happened will always happen under similar circumstances.

a. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a negation, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred:—

dīcēbat melius quam scrīpsit Hortēnsius (Or. 132), Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison: compare the use of quisquam, üllus, etc. (§§ 311, 312), and the French ne after comparatives and superlatives.]

476. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs ōdī, I hate; meminī, I remember; nōvī, I know; cōnsuēvī, I am accustomed, with others used preteritively, as vēnerat (= aderat, he was at hand, etc.), cōnstitērunt, they stand firm (have taken their stand), and many inceptives (see § 263. 1):—

¹ Cf. dētestor, reminīscor, sciō, soleō.

qui dies aestus maximos efficere consuevit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).

cûius splendor obsolēvit (Quinct. 59), whose splendor is now all faded.

Note. — Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, — dum oculos certamen averterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here averterat = tenebat.]

PLUPERFECT TENSE

- 477. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state completed in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to:—
 - (1) locī nātūra erat haec, quem locum nostrī castrīs dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground which our men had chosen for a camp.
 - Viridovīx summam imperī tenēbat eārum omnium cīvitātum quae dēfēcerant (id. iii. 17), Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.
 - (2) neque vērō cum aliquid mandāverat confectum putābat (Cat. iii. 16), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.
 - quae sī quandō adepta est id quod eī fuerat concupītum, tum fert alacritātem (Tusc. iv. 15), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.

For the Epistolary Pluperfect, see § 479.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

- 478. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future:
 - ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs (De Or. ii. 261), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.
 - carmina tum melius, cum vēnerit ipse, canēmus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come (shall have come).
 - sī illīus īnsidiae clāriōrēs hāc lūce fuerint, tum dēnique obsecrābō (Mil. 6), when the plots of that man have been shown to be as clear as daylight, then, and not till then, shall I conjure you.
 - ego certe meum officium praestitero (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I shall be found to have done it, whatever the event).
- Note.—Latin is far more exact than English in distinguishing between mere future action and action completed in the future. Hence the Future Perfect is much commoner in Latin than in English. It may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Romans for representing an action as completed:
 - quid inventum sit paulo post videro (Acad. ii. 76), what has been found out I shall see presently.
 - qui Antonium oppresserit bellum taeterrimum confecerit (Fam. x. 19), whoever crushes (shall have crushed) Antony will finish (will have finished) a most loathsome war.

EPISTOLARY TENSES

- 479. In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were dated at the time it is supposed to be received:
 - neque tamen, haec cum scribēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12. 2), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.
 - ad tuās omnīs [epistulās] rescripseram prīdiē (Att. ix. 10. 1), I answered all your letters yesterday.
 - cum quod scriberem ad të nihil habërem, tamen hās dedī litterās (Att. ix. 16), though I have nothing to write to you, still I write this letter.

NOTE. — In this use these tenses are called the Epistolary Perfect, Imperfect, and Pluperfect. The epistolary tenses are not employed with any uniformity, but only when attention is particularly directed to the *time of writing* (so especially scrībēbam, dabam, etc.).

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

480. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the speaker.

The Present always refers to future (or indefinite) time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.

481. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent Clauses were habitually used in certain fixed connections with the tenses of the main verb.

These connections were determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together. They are known, collectively, as the Sequence of Tenses.

Note. — The so-called Sequence of Tenses is not a mechanical law. Each tense of the subjunctive in dependent clauses (as in independent) originally denoted its own time in relation to the time of the speaker, though less definitely than the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Gradually, however, as the complex sentence was more strongly felt as a unit, certain types in which the tenses of the dependent clause seemed to accord with those of the main clause were almost unconsciously regarded as regular, and others, in which there was no such agreement, as exceptional. Thus a pretty definite system of correspondences grew up, which is codified in the rules for the Sequence of Tenses. These, however, are by no means rigid. They do not apply with equal stringency to all dependent constructions, and they were frequently disregarded, not only when their strict observance would have obscured the sense, but for the sake of emphasis and variety, or merely from carelessness.

Sequence of Tenses

482. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent Clauses follow special rules for the Sequence of Tenses.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in independent clauses are divided into two classes,—Primary and Secondary.

- 1. PRIMARY. The Primary Tenses include all forms that express present or future time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative.
- 2. Secondary. The Secondary Tenses include all forms that refer to past time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

NOTE. — To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in independent clauses:—(1) Primary: Present Infinitive in Exclamations; (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see §§ 462, 485. a. n.).

The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary (see § 485. a).

For the Historical Present, see § 485. e; for the Imperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 485. h.

483. The following is the general rule for the Sequence of Tenses:—1

In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a Secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect:—

PRIMARY TENSES

I ask, am asking rogō, quid facias, what you are doing. quid fēceris, what you did, were doing, I shall ask rogābö, rogāvī (sometimes), I have asked have done, have been doing. I shall have asked quid facturus sis, what you will do. rogāverō, he writes scrībit, ut nos monest, to warn us. he will write scribet. scrībe (scrībitō), write ut nos moneas, to warn us. he writes quasi oblitus sit, as if he had forgotten. scrībit,

¹ The term is sometimes extended to certain relations between the tenses of subordinate verbs in the indicative and those of the main verb. These relations do not differ in principle from those which we are considering; but for convenience the term Sequence of Tenses is in this book restricted to subjunctives, in accordance with the usual practice.

SECONDARY TENSES

rogābam,
I asked, was asking
rogāvi,
I asked, have asked
rogāveram,
I had asked
scrīpsit,
he wrote
quid facerēs, what you were doing.
quid fēcissēs, what you had done, had
been doing.
quid factūrus essēs, what you would do.
ut nos moneret, to warn us.
quasi oblitus esset, as if he had forgotten.

- 484. In applying the rule for the Sequence of Tenses, observe —
- (1) Whether the main verb is (a) primary or (b) secondary.
- (2) Whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (i.e. past with reference to the main verb) or incomplete action (i.e. present or future with reference to the main verb). Then—
- a. If the leading verb is primary, the dependent verb must be in the Present if it denotes incomplete action, in the Perfect if it denotes completed action.
- b. If the leading verb is secondary, the dependent verb must be in the Imperfect if it denotes incomplete action, in the Pluperfect if it denotes completed action:—
 - (1) He writes [primary] to warn [incomplete action] us, scribit ut nos moneat. I ask [primary] what you were doing [now past], rogo quid feceris.
 - (2) He wrote [secondary] to warn [incomplete] us, scripsit ut nos monèret. I asked [secondary] what you were doing [incomplete], rogavi quid faceres.
- c. Notice that the Future Perfect denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect:—
 - He shows that if they come (shall have come), many will perish, demonstrat, si venerint, multos interitüros.
 - He showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish, dēmonstrāvit, sī vēnissent, multos interitūros.
- 485. In the Sequence of Tenses the following special points are to be noted:—
- a. The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind:
 - ut satis esset praesidi provisum est (Cat. ii. 26), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
 - addūxī hominem in quō satisfacere exterīs nātionibus possētis (Verr. i. 2), I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations. [Secondary sequence]

- est enim res iam in eum locum addusta, ut quamquam multum intersit inter eorum causās qui dimicant, tamen inter victoriās non multum interfutūrum putem (Fam. v. 21. 3), for affairs have been brought to such a pass that, though there is a great difference between the causes of those who are fighting, still I do not think there will be much difference between their victories. [Primary sequence.]
- ea adhibita doctrīna est quae vel vitiōsissimam nātūram excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. 1. 7), such instruction has been given as can train even the faultiest nature. [Primary sequence.]
- Note. The Perfect Infinitive in exclamations follows the same rule:
 - quemquamne fuisse tam scelerātum qui hōc fingeret (Phil. xiv. 14), was any one so abandoned as to imagine this? [Secondary.]
 - adeon rem redisse patrem ut extimescam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that things have come to such a pass that I should dread my father! [Primary.]
- b. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action. Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent—

1. A Perfect Definite:—

- non dubito quin omnes tui scripserint (Fam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all your friends have written. [Direct statement: scripserunt.]
- quā rē non ignoro quid accidat in ultimis terris, cum audierim in Italiā querellās cīvium (Q. Fr. i. 1. 33), therefore I know well what happens at the ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citizens. [Direct statement: audīvī.]

2. A Perfect Historical: —

mē autem hīc laudat quod rettulerim, non quod patefēcerim (Att. xii. 21), me he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I brought it to light. [Direct statement: rettulit.]

3. An Imperfect:—

- sī forte cecidērunt, tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amīcōrum (Lael. 53), if perchance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends. [Direct question: quam inopēs erant?]
- qui status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dedī, scīre poteris ex C. Titiō Strabone (Fam. xii. 6), what the condition of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: qui status erat?]
- quam cīvitātī cārus fuerit maerore fūneris indicātum est (Lael. 11), how dear he was to the state has been shown by the grief at his funeral. [Direct question: quam cārus erat?]
- ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequens fuerit Platonis auditor (Or. 15), it may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato.

 [Direct question: quam frequens erat?]
- NOTE. Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well. This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive for continued past action after a primary tense. Thus, miror quid fecerit may mean (1) I wonder what he has done, (2) I wonder what he did (hist. perf.), or (3) I wonder what he was doing.

- c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses:—
 - Hortensius ārdēbat dicendī cupiditāte sīc ut in nūllō umquam flagrantius studium vīderim (Brut. 302), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.
 - [Siciliam Verres] per triennium ita vexavit ac perdidit ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nullo modo possit (Verr. i. 12), for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present describes a state of things actually existing.]
 - videor esse consecutus ut non possit Dolabella in Italiam pervenire (Fam. xii. 14. 2), I seem to have brought it about that Dolabella cannot come into Italy.
- NOTE 1. This construction emphasizes the result; the regular sequence of tenses would subordinate it.
- Note 2. There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative:
 - Thorius erat ita non superstitiosus ut illa plūrima in suā patriā et sacrificia et fāna contemneret; ita non timidus ad mortem ut in aciē sit ob rem pūblicam interfectus (Fin. ii. 63), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnēbat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the state.
 - d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses:
 - ex his quae tribuisset, sibi quam mūtābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8. 20), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct: mūtābilis est.]
 - ibi quantam vim ad stimulandos animos īra habēret appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to goad the mind. [Direct: habet.]
 - Note. —In English the original tense is more commonly kept.
- e. The Historical Present (§ 469) is sometimes felt as a primary, sometimes as a secondary tense, and accordingly it takes either the primary or the secondary sequence:
 - rogat ut curet quod dixisset (Quinct. 18), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of. [Both primary and secondary sequence.]
- Note. After the historical present, the subjunctive with cum temporal must follow the secondary sequence:
 - quo cum venisset cognoscit (B. C. i. 34), when he had come there he learns.
 - cum esset pugnatum horis quinque, nostrique gravius premerentur, impetum in cohortis faciunt (id. i. 46), when they had fought for five hours, and our men were pretty hard pressed, they make an attack on the cohorts.
- f. The Historical Infinitive regularly takes the secondary sequence:—
- interim cotīdiē Caesar Haeduōs frümentum, quod essent pollicitī, flāgitāre (B. G. i. 16), meanwhile Cæsar demanded of the Hædui every day the grain which they had promised.

- g. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 517) and in the Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) are not affected by the sequence of tenses:
 - quia tale sit, ut vel si ignorarent id homines vel si obmutuissent (Fin. ii. 49), because it is such that even if men were ignorant of it, or had been silent about it.
 - quaero a te cur C. Cornelium non defenderem (Vat. 5), I ask you why I was not to defend Caius Cornelius? [Direct: cur non defenderem?]
- h. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 517) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence:
 - sī aliī consulēs essent, ad tē potissimum, Paule, mitterem, ut eos mihi quam amīcissimos redderēs (Fam. xv. 13. 3), if there were other consuls, I should send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as friendly to me as possible.
 - si solos eos diceres miseros quibus moriendum esset, neminem exciperes (Tusc. i. 9), if you were to call only those wretched who must die, you would except no one.
- i. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time:
 - sed si res coget, est quiddam tertium, quod neque Selicio nec mihi displicebat: ut neque iacere rem pateremur, etc. (Fam. i. 5 a. 3), but if the case shall demand, there is a third [course] which neither Selicius nor myself disapproved, that we should not allow, etc. [Here Cicero is led by the time of displicebat.]
 - sed tamen ut scīrēs, haec tibi scrībō (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus. [As if he had used the epistolary imperfect scrībēbam (§ 479).]
 - cûius praecepti tanta vis est ut ea non homini cuipiam sed Delphico deo tribueretur (Legg. i. 58), such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god. [The precept was an old one.]
- j. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, its sequence may be secondary if the verb of that clause expresses past time, even if the main verb is in a primary tense:
 - sed tamen qua re acciderit ut ex meis superioribus litteris id suspicarere nescio (Fam. ii. 16), but yet how it happened that you suspected this from my previous letter, I don't know.
 - tantum profeciese videmur ut a Graecis në verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in abundance of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.
- Note. So regularly after a Perfect Infinitive which depends on a primary tense ($\S 585$. a).

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

486. Except in Indirect Discourse, only the Present and Perfect Infinitives are used.

The Present represents the action of the verb as in progress without distinct reference to time, the Perfect as completed.

For the Tenses of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse see § 584.

- a. With past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as dēbuī, oportuit, potuī), the Present Infinitive is often used in Latin where the English idiom prefers the Perfect Infinitive:
 - numne, sī Coriolānus habuit amīcōs, ferre contrā patriam arma illī cum Coriolānō dēbuērunt (Lael. 36), if Coriolanus had friends, ought they to have borne arms with him against their fatherland?
 - pecūnia, quam his oportuit civitātibus pro frūmento darī (Verr. iii. 174), money which ought to have been paid to these states for grain.
 - consul esse qui potui, nisi eum vitae cursum tenuissem a pueritia (Rep. i. 10), how could I have become consul had I not from boyhood followed that course of life?
- **b.** With verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility, the Perfect Infinitive may be used to emphasize the idea of completed action:
 - tametsī statim vīcisse dēbeō (Rosc. Am. 73), although I ought to win my case at once (to be regarded as having won it).
 - bellum quod possumus ante hiemem perfēcisse (Liv. xxxvii. 19. 5), a war which we can have completed before winter.
 - nil ego, si peccem, possum nescisse (Ov. H. xvi. 47), if I should go wrong, I cannot have done it in ignorance (am not able not to have known).
- NOTE. With the past tenses of these verbs the perfect infinitive is apparently due to attraction:
 - quod iam pridem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 5), (a thing) which ought to have been done long ago.
 - haec facta ab illo oportebat (Ter. Haut. 536), this ought to have been done by him. turn decuit metuisse (Aen. x. 94), then was the time to fear (then you should have feared).
- c. In archaic Latin and in legal formulas the Perfect Active Infinitive is often used with nölö or volö in prohibitions:—
 - Chaldaeum nēquem consuluisse velit (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him not venture to have consulted a soothsayer.
 - nölītō dēvellisse (Pl. Poen. 872), do not have them plucked.
 - nēquis humāsse velit Âiācem (Hor. S. ii. 3. 187), let no one venture to have buried Ajax.
 - NEIQVIS EORVM BACANAL HABVISE VELET (S. C. de Bac. 1), let no one of them venture to have had a place for Bacchanalian worship.

- d. With verbs of wishing the Perfect Passive Infinitive (commonly without esse) is often used emphatically instead of the Present:
 - domestică cură te levătum volo (Q. Fr. iii. 9. 3), I wish you relieved of private care.
 - illös monitõs volö (Cat. ii. 27), I wish them thoroughly warned.
 - qui illam [patriam] exstinctam cupit (Fin. iv. 66), who is eager for her utter destruction.
 - illud të esse admonitum volo (Cael. 8), I wish you to be well advised of this.
 qui së ab omnibus dësertos potius quam abs të dëfënsos esse mālunt (Caecil.
 21), who prefer to be deserted by all rather than to be defended by you.
- Note. The participle in this case is rather in predicate agreement (with or without esse) than used to form a strict perfect infinitive, though the full form can hardly be distinguished from that construction.
- e. In late Latin, and in poetry (often for metrical convenience), rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active Infinitive is used emphatically instead of the Present, and even after other verbs than those of wishing:
 - nëmö eörum est qui non perisse të cupiat (Verr. ii. 149), there is no one of them who is not eager for your death.
 - haud equidem premendo alium me extulisse velim (Liv. xxii. 59. 10), I would not by crushing another exalt myself.
 - sunt qui nolint tetigisse (Hor. S. i. 2. 28), there are those who would not touck commisses cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), he is cautious of doing.
 - nunc quem tetigisse timerent, anguis eras (Ov. M. viii. 733), again you became a serpent which they dreaded to touch.
 - frātrēsque tendentēs opācō Pēlion imposuisse Olympō (Hor. Od. iii. 4. 51), and the brothers striving to set Pelion on dark Olympus.
- f. After verbs of feeling the Perfect Infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

So also with satis est, satis habeo, melius est, contentus sum, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important:—

- non paenitēbat intercapēdinem scrībendī fēcisse (Fam. xvi. 21), I was not sorry to have made a respite of writing.
- pudet më non praestitisse (id. xiv. 3), I am ashamed not to have shown.
- sunt quos pulverem Olympicum collegisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i. 1. 3), some delight to have stirred up the dust at Olympia.
- quiesse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), it will be better to have kept quiet.
- ac sī quis amet scripsisse (Hor. S. i. 10. 60), than if one should choose to have written.
- id sölum dīxisse satis habeō (Vell. ii. 124), I am content to have said only this.
 - 1 Volo, and less frequently nolo, malo, and cupio.

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB

487. The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows: -1

1. Attributive (§ 494). 2. Simple Predicate (§ 495). a. Present and] 3. Periphrastic Perfect (passive) (§ 495. N.). Perfect: 4. Predicate of Circumstance (§ 496). 5. Descriptive (Indirect Discourse) (§ 497 d). 1. Periphrastic with esse (§ 498. a). I. Participles: 2. Periphrastic with fui (= Pluperfect Subjunctive) (§ 498. b). 1. As Descriptive Adjective (§ 500. 1). 2. Periphrastic with esse (§ 500. 2). 3. Of Purpose with certain verbs (§ 500. 4). 1. Genitive as Subjective or Objective Genitive (§ 504). II. Gerund or 2. Dative, with Adjectives (of Fitness), Nouns, Verbs (§ 505). Gerundive: 3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions (§ 506). 4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 507). 1. Accusative Supine (in -um), with Verbs of Motion (§ 509). III. Supine: 2. Ablative Supine (in -ū), chiefly with Adjectives (§ 510).

PARTICIPLES

488. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective, but has a partial distinction of tense and may govern a case.

NOTE.—Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an Adjective, it limits substantives and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 286). As a Verb, it has distinctions of time (§ 489) and often takes an object.

Distinctions of Tense in Participles

489. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as in progress at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as completed, and the Future as still to take place.

- 490. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the Present Indicative. Thus it may denote—
 - 1. An action continued in the present but begun in the past (§ 466): quaerenti mihi iam diū certa rēs nūlla veniēbat in mentem (Fam. iv. 18), though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

¹ For the Syntax of the Infinitive, see §§ 451 ff., 486.

- 2. Attempted action (§ 467):—
 - C. Flaminio restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. M. 11), he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.
- 3. Rarely (in poetry and later Latin) futurity or purpose, with a verb of motion:—

Eurypylum scītantem ōrācula mittimus (Aen. ii. 114), we send Eurypylus to consult the oracle. [Cf. § 468.]

491. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.

Such are, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, arbitrātus, fīsus, ausus, secūtus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers:—

rem incrēdibilem ratī (Sall. Cat. 48), thinking the thing incredible. Insidiās veritus (B. G. ii. 11), fearing an ambuscade. cohortātus mīlitēs docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed. īrātus dīxistī (Mur. 62), you spoke in a passion. ad pūgnam congressī (Liv. iv. 10), meeting in fight.

492. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive.

The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with dum or cum:—

obiere dum calciantur mātūtīno duo Caesares (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), two Cæsars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.

mëque ista dëlectant cum Latīnē dicuntur (Acad. i. 18), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.

Note. — These constructions are often used when a participle might be employed:—
dīc, hospes, Spartae nōs tē hīc vīdisse iacentīs, dum sānctīs patriae lēgibus obsequimur (Tusc. i. 101), tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country's sacred laws. [Here dum obsequimur is a translation of the Greek present participle πειθόμενοι.]

dum [Ulixēs] sibi, dum sociīs reditum parat (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 21), Ulysses, while securing the return of himself and his companions. [In Greek: ἀρνύμενος.]

- 493. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice. The deficiency is supplied —
- 1. In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning: —

nam singulās [nāvīs] nostrī consectātī expūgnāvērunt (B. G. iii. 15), for our men, having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.

Note. — The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning (§ 190. b).

- 2. In other verbs, either by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute (§ 420. N.) or by a temporal clause (especially with cum or postquam):
 - itaque convocătis centurionibus milites certiores facit (B. G. iii. 5), and so, having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers (the centurions having been called together).

cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.

postquam id animum advertit copias suas Caesar in proximum collem subducit (B. G. i. 24), having observed this (after he had observed this) Caesar led his troops to the nearest hill.

Uses of Participles

494. The Present and Perfect Participles are sometimes used as attributives, nearly like adjectives:—

aeger et flagrāns animus (Tac. Ann. iii. 54), his sick and passionate mind. cum antīquissimam sententiam tum comprobātam (Div. i. 11), a view at once most ancient and well approved.

sīgna numquam ferē mentientia (id. i. 15), signs hardly ever deceitful. auspiciīs ūtuntur coāctīs (id. i. 27), they use forced auspices.

- a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared, or used as nouns:
 - quo mulieri esset res cautior (Caec. 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.

in illis artibus praestantissimus (De Or. i. 217), preëminent in those arts.

sibi indulgentes et corpori deservientes (Legg. i. 39), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).

rēctē facta paria esse dēbent (Par. 22), right deeds (things rightly done) ought to be like in value (see § 321. b).

male parta male dilabuntur (Phil. ii. 65), ill got, ill spent (things ill acquired are ill spent).

consuetudo valentis (De Or. ii. 186), the habit of a man in health.

495. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by esse or a copulative verb (see § 283):—

Gallia est divisa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided.

locus qui nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.

vidētis ut senectūs sit operosa et semper agēns aliquid et moliens (Cat. M. 26), you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something.

nēmo adhūc convenīre mē voluit cui fuerim occupātus (id. 32), nobody hitherto has [ever] wished to converse with me, to whom I have been "engaged."

Note. — From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive, — the participle of completed action with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as, interfectus est, he was (or has been) killed, lit. he is having-been-killed (i.e. already slain).

The perfect participle used with full etc. was perhaps originally an intensified expression in the popular language for the perfect, pluperfect, etc.

At times these forms indicate a state of affairs no longer existing: —

cotem quoque eodem loco sitam fuisse memorant (Liv. i. 36. 5), they say that a whetstone was (once) deposited in this same place. [At the time of writing it was no longer there.]

arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, humī inventa sunt (Div. i. 74), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground.

But more frequently they are not to be distinguished from the forms with sum etc.

The construction is found occasionally at all periods, but is most common in Livy and later writers.

496. The Present and Perfect Participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or a subordinate clause would be more natural.

In this use the participles express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic (or description), manner, means, attendant circumstances:—

- volventes hostilia cadavera amicum reperiebant (Sall. Cat. 61), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]
- paululum commorātus, sīgna canere iubet (id. 59), after delaying a little while, he orders them to give the signal. [Time.]
- longius prosequi veritus, ad Ciceronem pervenit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]
- qui sciret laxis dare iussus habēnās (Aen. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose rein when bidden. [Occasion.]
- damnātum poenam sequi oportēbat (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overlake him. [Condition.]
- salūtem īnspērantibus reddidistī (Marc. 21), you have restored a safety for which we did not hope (to [us] not hoping). [Concession.]
- Dardanius caput ecce puer detectus (Aen. x. 133), the Trojan boy with his head uncovered. [Description.]
- nec trepides in usum poscentis aevi pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]
- incitātī fugā montīs altissimos petēbant (B. C. iii. 93), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]
- milites sublevati alii ab aliis magnam partem itineris conficerent (id. i. 68), the soldiers, helped up by each other, accomplished a considerable part of the route. [Means.]
- hoc laudans, Pompeius idem iūrāvit (id. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant Circumstance.]
- aut sedens aut ambulans disputabam (Tusc. i. 7), I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking. [Attendant Circumstance.]

- Note 1. These uses are especially frequent in the Ablative Absolute (§ 420).
- Note 2.— A coördinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle:— instructos ordines in locum aequum deducit (Sall. Cat. 59), he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.
 - ut hos traductos necaret (B. G. v. 6), that he might carry them over and put them to death.
- NOTE 3.—A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in English is given by without and a verbal noun: as,—miserum est nihil proficientem angī (N. D. iii. 14), it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.
- Note 4.—Acceptum and expensum as predicates with ferre and referre are book-keeping terms: as,—quas pecunias ferebat eis expensas (Verr. ii. 170), what sums he charged to them.
- 497. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea:—1
 - ante conditam condendamve urbem (Liv. Pref.), before the city was built or building.
 - illī lībertātem imminūtam cīvium Rōmānōrum nōn tulērunt; vōs ēreptam vītam neglegētis (Manil. 11), they did not endure the infringement of the citizens liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their lives?

 post nātōs hominēs (Brut. 224), since the creation of man.

iam ā conditā urbe (Phil. iii. 9), even from the founding of the city.

- a. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with opus, need (cf. § 411. a):
 - opus facto est viatico (Pl. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision. maturato opus est (Liv. viii. 13. 17), there is need of haste.
- b. The perfect participle with habeo (rarely with other verbs) has almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continued effect of the action of the verb:—2
 - fidem quam habent spectātam iam et diū cognitam (Caecil. 11), my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.
 - cohortis in acië Lxxx constitutas habebat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts stationed in line of battle.
 - nefārios ducēs captos iam et comprehēnsos tenētis (Cat. iii. 16), you have now captured the infamous leaders and hold them in custody.
- c. A verb of effecting or the like may be used in combination with the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that verb more forcibly:—
- ¹ Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 1588); and the English "'T was at the royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), i.e. for the conquest of Persia.

2 The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this

use of habeo.

- praefectos suos multi missos fēcērunt (Verr. iii. 134), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).
- hic transactum reddet omne (Pl. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).
- adēmptum tibi iam faxo omnem metum (Ter. Haut. 341), I will relieve you of all fear (make it taken away).
- illam tibi incēnsam dabō (Ter. Ph. 974), I will make her angry with you.
- Note. Similarly volo (with its compounds) and cupio, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. \S 486. d).
- d. After verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 580), but expresses the action more vividly:
 - ut eum nēmō umquam in equō sedentem vīderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse. [Cf. Tusc. iii. 31.]

Note. — The same construction is used after facio, induco, and the like, with the name of an author as subject: as, — Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem (N. D. i. 31), Xenophon represents Socrates disputing.

Future Participle (Active)

- 498. The Future Participle (except futures and ventures) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by poets and later writers.
- a. The future participle is chiefly used with the forms of esse (often omitted in the infinitive) in the Active Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 195):
 - morere, Diagorā, non enim in caelum adscēnsūrus es (Tusc. i. 111), die, Diagoras, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.
 - spērat adulēscēns diū sē vīctūrum (Cat. M. 68), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).
 - neque petiturus umquam consulatum videretur (Off. iii. 79), and did not seem likely ever to be a candidate for the consulship.
- **b.** With the past tenses of esse in the indicative, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive ($\S 517. d$). For futurum fuisse, see $\S 589. b$.
- 499. By later writers and the poets the Future Participle is often used in simple agreement with a substantive to express—
 - 1. Likelihood or certainty:
 - rem ausus plūs fāmae habitūram (Liv. ii. 10), having dared a thing which would have more repute.

- 2. Purpose, intention, or readiness:
 - egreditur castris Romānus vāllum invāsūrus (Liv. iii. 60. 8), the Roman comes out of the camp with the intention of attacking the rampart.
 - dispersos per agros milites equitibus invasuris (id. xxxi. 36), while the horse were ready to attack the soldiers scattered through the fields.
 - 81 peritūrus abīs (Aen. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.
- 3. Apodosis:
 - dedit mihi quantum maximum potuit, datūrus amplius sī potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21. 6), he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able. [Here datūrus is equivalent to dedisset.]

Gerundive (Future Passive Participle)

NOTE. — The participle in -dus, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses: —

(1) Its predicate and attribute use as Participle or Adjective (§ 500).

- (2) Its use with the meaning of the Gerund (§ 503). This may be called its gerundive use.
- 500. The Gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting necessity, obligation, or propriety.

In this use of the Gerundive the following points are to be observed:

1. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun:—

fortem et conservandum virum (Mil. 104), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.

- gravis iniūria facta est et non ferenda (Flacc. 84), a grave and intolerable wrong has been done.
- 2. The most frequent use of the gerundive is with the forms of esse in the Second (or *passive*) Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 196):—

non agitanda res erit (Verr. v. 179), will not the thing have to be agitated?

3. The neuter gerundive of both transitive and intransitive verbs may be used impersonally in the second periphrastic conjugation.

With verbs that take the dative or ablative, an object may be expressed in the appropriate case; with transitive verbs, an object in the accusative is sometimes found:—

tempori serviendum est (Fam. ix. 7. 2), one must obey the time.

legibus parendum est, the laws must be obeyed.

ūtendum exercitātionibus modicīs (Cat. M. 36), we must use moderate exercise. **agitandumst** vigiliās (Pl. Trin. 869), I have got to stand guard.

via quam nöbis ingrediendum sit (Cat. M. 6), the way we have to enter.

- 4. After verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand, a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose:
 - redemptor qui columnam illam conduxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]
 - aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. ii. 1. 150), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.
 - nāvīs atque onera adservanda cūrābat (id. v. 146), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

GERUND

- 501. The Gerund is the neuter of the Gerundive, used substantively in the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative.
- 502. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun.

As a noun the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a verb it may take an object in the proper case:—

ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa diiddicandi (De Or. ii. 157), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and the false.

NOTE. — The Nominative of the gerund is supplied by the Infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives disserere and diudicare.

The Gerund is the neuter of the gerundive used impersonally, but retaining the verbal idea sufficiently to govern an object. It may therefore be regarded as a noun (cf. mātūrātō opus est, § 497. a) with a verbal force (cf. istanc tāctiō, p. 240, footnote).

GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

- 503. When the Gerund would have an object in the Accusative, the Gerundive² is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, which takes the case that the gerund would have had:
 - parātiōrēs ad omnia perīcula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with perīcula, which is itself governed by ad. The (inadmissible) construction with the gerund would be ad subeundum perīcula; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative perīcula.] For details, see §§ 504-507.
- ¹ Such verbs are accipiō, adnōtō, attribuō, condūcō, cūrō, dēnōtō, dēposcō, dō, dīvidō, dōnō, ēdīcō, ēdoceō, ferō, habeō, locō, mandō, obiciō, permittō, petō, pōnō, praebeō, prōpōnō, relinquō, rogō, suscipiō, trādō, voveō.
 - ² The gerundive construction is probably the original one.

- NOTE 1.—In this use the gerund and the gerundive are translated in the same way, but have really a different construction. The gerundive is a passive participle, and agrees with its noun, though in translation we change the voice, just as we may translate vigiliae agitandae sunt (guard must be kept) by I must stand guard.
- NOTE 2. In the gerundive construction the verbs utor, fruor, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin (§ 410. a. N. 1): as, ad perfruends voluptates (Off. i. 25), for enjoying pleasures.
- a. The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of Gerund and Gerundive:—

- NOTE 1. The gerund with a direct object is practically limited to the Genitive and the Ablative (without a preposition); even in these cases the gerundive is commoner.
- Note 2.—The gerund or gerundive is often found coördinated with nominal constructions, and sometimes even in apposition with a noun:—
 - (1) in foro, in cūriā, in amīcorum periculis propulsandis (Phil. vii. 7), in the forum, in the senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.
 - (2) ad rēs diversissimās, pārendum atque imperandum (Liv. xxi. 4), for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.

Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive

- 504. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after nouns or adjectives, either as subjective or objective genitive:
 - vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. M. 72), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]
 - neque consili habendi neque arma capiendi spatio dato (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]
 - non tam commutandarum quam evertendarum rerum cupidos (Off. ii. 3), desirous not so much of changing as of destroying the state. [Objective.]
 - Note 1. In these uses the gerund and the gerundive are about equally common.
- Note 2.—In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the gerund or gerundive: as,—tempus est abīre, it is time to go.
- a. The genitive of the gerund sometimes takes a direct object, especially a neuter pronoun or a neuter adjective used substantively:
 - nülla causa iüsta cuiquam esse potest contră patriam arma capiendi (Phil. ii.
 - 53), no one can have a just cause for taking up arms against his country. artem vēra ac falsa dīiūdicandī (De Or. ii. 157), the art of distinguishing true from false.

- Note 1. The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in later Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose:
 - quae postquam gloriosa modo neque belli patrandi cognovit (Iug. 88), when he perceived that these were only brilliant deeds and not likely to end the war.
 - Aegyptum proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitatis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he sets out for Egypt to study old times.
- **b.** The genitive of the gerund or gerundive with causa or gratiant expresses purpose (§ 533. b):—

pābulandī aut frūmentandī causā prōgressī (B. C. i. 48), having advanced for the purpose of collecting fodder or supplies.

vitandae suspicionis causā (Cat. i. 19), in order to avoid suspicion.

simulandi grātiā (Iug. 37), in order to deceive.

exercendae memoriae gratia (Cat. M. 38), for the sake of training the memory.

c. The genitive of the gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially a personal pronoun in the plural) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object:—

rêiciendī trium iūdicum potestās (Verr. ii. 77), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).

suī colligendī facultās (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive

505. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used in a few expressions after verbs:—1

diem praestitit operi faciendo (Verr. ii. 1. 148), he appointed a day for doing the work.

praeesse agrō colendō (Rosc. Am. 50), to take charge of cultivating the land. esse solvendō, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

Note. — The dative of the gerund with a direct object is never found in classic Latin, but occurs twice in Plautus.

a. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used after adjectives,² especially those which denote fitness or adaptability:—

genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.

reliqua tempora demetendis fructibus et percipiendis accommodata sunt (Cat. M. 70), the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.

perferendis militum mandātis idoneus (Tac. Ann. i. 23), suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers.

Note. — This construction is very common in Livy and later writers, infrequent in classical prose.

1 Such are pracesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.

² Such are accommodatus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idoneus, par, ūtilis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 385. a).

b. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office etc.:—

comitia consulibus rogandis (Div. i. 33), elections for nominating consuls. triumvir colonies deducundis (Iug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies. triumvir rei püblicae constituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumvirs (a commission of three) for settling the government.

Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive

506. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after the preposition ad, to denote Purpose (cf. § 533): —

mē vocās ad scribendum (Or. 34), you summon me to write.

vivis non ad deponendam sed ad confirmandam audaciam (Cat. i. 4), you live not to put off but to confirm your daring.

nactus aditūs ad ea conanda (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

NOTE 1.—Other prepositions appear in this construction; inter and ob a few times, circa, in, ante, and a few others very rarely: as, inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

NOTE 2.—The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition never takes a direct object in classic Latin.

Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive

- 507. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express manner, means, cause, etc.; (2) after Comparatives; and (3) after the propositions ab, de, ex, in, and (rarely) pro:—
 - (1) multa pollicendo persuadet (Iug. 46), he persuades by large promises.

 Latine loquendo cuivis par (Brut. 128), equal to any man in speaking Latin.

 his ipsis legendis (Cat. M. 21), by reading these very things.
 - obscūram atque humilem conciendo ad sē multitūdinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.
 - (2) nüllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessārium est (Off. i. 47), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
 - (3) in re gerenda versari (Cat. M. 17), to be employed in conducting affairs.

NOTE 1.—The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used with verbs and adjectives: as,—nec continuando abstitit magistrātū (Liv. ix. 34), he did not desist from continuing his magistracy.

Note 2. — The ablative of the gerund rarely takes a direct object in classic prose.

In this use the ablative of the gerund is, in later writers nearly, and in mediæval writers entirely, equivalent to a present participle: as,—cum ūnā diērum flendō sēdisset, quīdam mīles generōsus iūxtā eam equitandō vēnit (Gesta Romanorum, 66 [58]), as one day she sat weeping, a certain knight came riding by (compare § 507, fourth example). Hence come the Italian and Spanish forms of the present participle (as mandando, esperando), the true participial form becoming an adjective in those languages.

SUPINE

- 508. The Supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 94. b), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses. (1) The form in -um is the Accusative of the end of motion (§ 428. i). (2) The form in - \bar{u} is usually Dative of purpose (§ 382), but the Ablative was early confused with it.
- 509. The Supine in -um is used after verbs of motion to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case:—

quid est, Imusne sessum? etsi admonitum vēnimus tē, non flägitātum (De Or. iii. 17), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you.

nüptum dare (collocare), to give in marriage.

vēnērunt questum iniūriās (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.

Note 1.—The supine in -um is especially common with eo, and with the passive infinitive iri forms the future infinitive passive:—

fuere cives qui rem publicam perditum irent (Sall. Cat. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic.

sī scīret sē trucidātum īrī (Div. ii. 22), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [Rare except in Cicero. For the more usual way of expressing the future passive infinitive, see § 569. 3. a.]

NOTE 2. — The supine in -um is occasionally used when motion is merely implied.

510. The Supine in -ū 1 is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted:—

rem non modo visū foedam, sed etiam audītū (Phil. ii. 63), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.

quaerunt quid optimum factü sit (Verr. ii. 1. 68), they ask what is best to do. si hoc fas est dictü (Tusc. v. 88), if this is lawful to say.

vidētis nefās esse dictū miseram fuisse tālem senectūtem (Cat. M. 13), you see it is a sin to say that such an old age was wretched.

Note 1. — The supine in -ū is thus in appearance an Ablative of Specification (§ 418).

NOTE 2.—The supine in -ū is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with facilis, difficilis, and iūcundus, ad with the gerund is more common:—

nec visü facilis nec dictü adfābilis üllī (Aen. iii. 621), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.

difficilis ad distinguendum similitūdō (De Or. ii. 212), a likeness difficult to distinguish.

Note 3. — With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as, — faciles aurem praebere (Prop. ii. 21. 15), indulgent to lend an ear.

Norm 4. — The supine in -ū with a verb is extremely rare: as, — pudet dictū (Tac. Agr. 32), it is a shame to tell. [On the analogy of pudendum dictū.]

¹ The only common supines in -ū are audītū, dictū, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, vīsū. In classic use this supine is found in comparatively few verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

511. The Conditional Sentence differs from other complex sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (APODOSIS) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (PROTASIS) upon the truth of which the whole statement depends. Like all complex sentences, however, the Conditional Sentence has arisen from the use of two independent sentence-forms to express the parts of a thought which was too complicated to be fully expressed by a simple sentence. But because the thoughts thus expressed are in reality closely related, as parts of a single whole, the sentences which represent them are also felt to be mutually dependent, even though the relation is not expressed by any connecting word. Thus, Speak the word: my servant shall be healed is a simpler and an earlier form of expression than If thou speak the word, etc.

The Conditional Particles were originally pronouns without conditional meaning: thus, $s\bar{i}$, if, is a weak demonstrative of the same origin as $s\bar{i}c$, so ($s\bar{i}$ -ce like $h\bar{i}$ -ce, see § 215. 5), and had originally the meaning of in that way, or in some way. Its relative sense (if) seems to have come from its use with $s\bar{i}c$ to make a pair of correlatives: thus . . . thus (see § 512. b).

In its origin the Conditional Sentence assumed one of two forms. The condition was from the first felt to be a condition, not a fact or a command; but, as no special sentence-form for a condition was in use, it employed for its expression either a statement of fact (with the Indicative) or a form of mild command (the Subjunctive). From the former have come all the uses of the Indicative in protasis; from the latter all the uses of the Subjunctive in protasis. The Apodosis has either (1) the Indicative, expressing the conclusion as a fact, and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, expressing it originally as future—and hence more or less doubtful—or (2) the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive expressing it as futurum in praeterito, and so unfulfilled in the present or past. Thus, - rīdēs, māiore cachinno concutitur, you laugh, he shakes with more boisterous laughter, is the original form for the Indicative in protasis and apodosis; sī rīdēs originally means merely you laugh in some way or other, and so, later, IF you laugh. So rogës Aristonem, neget, ask Aristo, he would say no, is the original form of the subjunctive in protasis and apodosis; sī rogēs would mean ask in some way or other. In sī rogāres, negāret, the Imperfect rogāres transfers the command of roges to past time,2 with the meaning suppose you had asked, and sī would have the same meaning as before; while negaret transfers the future idea of neget to past time, and means he was going to deny. Now the stating of this supposition at all gives rise to the implication that it is untrue in point of fact, - because, if it were true, there would ordinarily be no need to state it as a supposition: for it would then be a simple fact, and as such would be put in the indicative.8 Such a condition or conclusion

¹ The futurum in practerito is a tense future relatively to a time absolutely past. It denotes a future act transferred to the point of view of past time, and hence is naturally expressed by a past tense of the Subjunctive: thus dixisset, he would have said = dicturus fuit, he was about to say [but did not]. As that which looks towards the future from some point in the past has a natural limit in present time, such a tense (the imperfect subjunctive) came naturally to be used to express a present condition purely ideal, that is to say, contrary to fact.

² Compare potius diceret, he should rather have said (§ 439. b).

There are, however, some cases in which this implication does not arise: as,—deciëns centena dedisses, nil erat in loculis (Hor. S. i. 3. 15), if you'd given him a million, there was nothing in his coffers.

(originally past, meaning suppose you had asked [yesterday], he was going to deny) came to express an unfulfilled condition in the present: suppose (or if) you were now asking, he would [now] deny—just as in English ought, which originally meant owed, has come to express a present obligation.

For the classification of Conditional Sentences, see § 513.

PROTASIS AND APODOSIS

512. A complete Conditional Sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis.

The clause containing the condition is called the Protasis; the clause containing the conclusion is called the Apodosis:—

- si qui exire volunt [PROTASIS], conivere possum [Apodosis] (Cat. ii. 27), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.
- sī est in exsiliō [PROTASIS], quid amplius postulātis [APODOSIS] (Lig. 13), if he is in exile, what more do you ask?

It should be carefully noted that the Apodosis is the main clause and the Protasis the dependent clause.

- a. The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle si, if, or one of its compounds.
- Note. These compounds are sin, nisi, etiam si, etsi, tametsi, tamenetsi (see Conditional and Concessive Particles, p. 138). An Indefinite Relative, or any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a conditional clause: see Conditional Relative Clauses (§§ 519, 542); Concessive Clauses (§ 527).
- b. The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, ita, tum (rarely sic), or ea condicione etc.:
 - ita enim senectūs honesta est, sī sē ipsa dēfendit (Cat. M. 38), on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.
 - sī quidem mē amāret, tum istuc prodesset (Ter. Eun. 446), if he loved me, then this would be profitable.
 - sīc scrībēs aliquid, sī vacābis (Att. xii. 38. 2), if you are (shall be) at leisure, then you will write something.
- c. The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so appear in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase:
 - sepultūrā quoque prohibitūrī, nī rēx humārī iussisset (Q. C. viii. 2. 12), intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.
- 1 "There was a certain lender which ought him five hundred pieces." Tyndale's New Testament.

quod si praeterea nëmo sequatur, tamen së cum sola decima legione iturum [esse] (B. G. i. 40. 14), but if no one else should follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.

sī quos adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id. 40. 8), if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.

NOTE. — When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any other dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the above examples, see § 589).

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONS

- 513. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General. •
- 1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time.
- 2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.
- 514. The principal or typical forms of Conditional Sentences may be exhibited as follows:—

PARTICULAR CONDITIONS

A. SIMPLE CONDITIONS (nothing implied as to fulfilment)

1. Present Time

Present Indicative in both clauses:—
sī adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.

2. Past Time

Imperfect or Perfect Indicative in both clauses:—

sī aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well.

sī adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been [was] here, it has been [was] well.

B. FUTURE CONDITIONS (as yet unfulfilled)

1. More Vivid

- a. Future Indicative in both clauses: sī aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.
- **b.** Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis:—

sī adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well.

2. Less Vivid

- a. Present Subjunctive in both clauses:—
 sī adsit, bene sit, if he should be (or were to be) here, it would be well.
- b. Perfect Subjunctive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis:—

si adfuerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.

C. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT

1. Present Time

Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses:—
sī adesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is nor here).

2. Past Time

Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses:—

sī adfuisset, bene fuisset, if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was not here).

NOTE.—The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus if he is alive now is a present condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; if he is alive next year is a future condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, if he were here now is a present condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; if he were to see me thus is a future condition less vivid, to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so too, if you advised him, he would attend may be future less vivid.

D. GENERAL CONDITIONS

General Conditions do not usually differ in form from Particular Conditions (A, B, and C), but are sometimes distinguished in the cases following: —

1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time)

- a. Present Subjunctive second person singular (Indefinite Subject) in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis:
 - sī hōc dīcās, crēditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.
 - b. Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis: si quid dīxit, crēditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.
- ¹ In most English verbs the Preterite (or Past) Subjunctive is identical in form with the Preterite Indicative. Thus in such a sentence as if he loved his father, he would not say this, the verb loved is really a Preterite Subjunctive, though this does not appear from the inflection. In the verb to be, however, the Subjunctive were has been preserved and differs in form from the indicative was.

- 2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time)
- a. Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apod-081S:
 - si quid dixerat, credebatur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed.
- b. Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis:
 - sī quid dīceret, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed).1

PARTICULAR CONDITIONS

Simple Present and Past Conditions — Nothing Implied

- 515. In the statement of Present and Past conditions whose falsity is NOT implied, the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis:
 - sī tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]
 - haec igitur, sī Romae es; sīn abes, aut etiam sī ades, haec negōtia sīc sē habent (Att. v. 18), this, then, if you are at Rome; but if you are away — or even if you are there — these matters are as follows. [Present Condition.]
 - sī Caesarem probātis, in mē offenditis (B. C. ii. 32. 10), if you favor Cæsar, you find fault with me. [Present Condition.]
 - sī quī māgnīs ingeniīs in eō genere exstitērunt, non satis Graecorum gloriae responderunt (Tusc. i. 3), if any have shown themselves of great genius in that department, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks. [Past General Condition, not distinguished in form from Particular.]
 - accēpī Romā sine epistulā tuā fasciculum litterārum in quō, sī modo valuistī et Romae fuistī, Philotīmī dūcō esse culpam non tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, provided you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours. [Mixed: Past condition and Present conclusion.]
 - quās litterās, sī Romae es, vidēbis putēsne reddendās (id. v. 18), as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it ought to be delivered. [Mixed: Present and Future.]
 - sī nēmō impetrāvit, adroganter rogō (Lig. 30), if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumptuous. [Past and Present.]
 - 1 Cf. the Greek forms corresponding to the various types of conditions: —

 - Β. 1. έλν πράσση τοῦτο, καλώς έξει.
 - C. 1. εί ξπρασσε τοῦτο, καλώς αν είχεν.
 - D. 1. εάν τις κλέπτη, κολάζεται.
 - A. 1. εί πράσσει τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔχει. 2. εί ἔπρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς εἶχεν.
 - 2. εί πράσσοι τοῦτο, καλώς αν έχοι.
 - 2. εί ξπραξε τοῦτο, καλώς αν ξσχεν.
 - 2. εί τις κλέπτοι, έκολάζετο.

- a. In these conditions the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative, but may assume any form, according to the sense:
 - sī placet . . . videāmus (Cat. M. 15), if you please, let us see. [Hortatory Subjunctive, § 439.]
 - sī nondum satis cernitis, recordāminī (Mil. 61), if you do not yet see clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]
 - sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre (Att. iv. 10), if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subjunctive of Modesty, § 447. 1.]
- Note. Although the form of these conditions does not imply anything as to the truth of the supposition, the sense or the context may of course have some such implication:
 - nolite, si in nostro omnium fletu nullam lacrimam aspexistis Milonis, hoc minus ei parcere (Mil. 92), do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.
 - petimus à vobis, iūdices, si qua divina in tantis ingeniis commendatio debet esse, ut eum in vestram accipiatis fidem (Arch. 31), we ask you, judges, if there ought to be anything in such genius to recommend it to us est by a recommendation of the gods, that you receive him under your protection.

In these two passages, the protasis really expresses cause: but the cause is put by the speaker in the form of a non-committal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves. In this way the desired impression is made on their minds more effectively than if an outspoken causal clause had been used.

Future Conditions

- 516. Future Conditions may be more vivid or less vivid.
- 1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the logical result.
- 2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.
- a. In the more vivid future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis:
 - sānābimur, sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish.

 quod sī legere aut audīre volētis, . . . reperiētis (Cat. M. 20), if you will [shall wish to] read or hear, you will find.
- NOTE.—In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the Future with SHALL. Often in Latin the Present Indicative is found in the protasis of a condition of this kind (cf. § 468):
 - sī vincimus, omnia nöbīs tūta erunt; sīn metū cesserimus, eadem illa advorsa fient (Sall. Cat. 58), if we conquer, all things will be safe for us; but if we yield through fear, those same things will become hostile.
 - si pereo, hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Aen. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.

- **b.** In the *less vivid* future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis:
 - haec si tecum patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat (Cat. i. 19), if your country should thus speak with you, ought she not to prevail?
 - quod sī quis deus mihi largiātur, . . . valdē recūsem (Cat. M. 83), but if some god were to grant me this, I should stoutly refuse.
- Note. The Present Subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the Future (or the Present) Indicative in apodosis from a change in the point of view:—1
 - sī dīligenter attendāmus, intellegēmus (Inv. ii. 44), if we attend (should attend) carefully, we shall understand.
 - nisi hoc dicat, "iure feci," non habet defensionem (id. i. 18), unless he should say this, "I acted justifiably," he has no defence.
- c. If the conditional act is regarded as completed before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive:
 - sin cum potuero non venero, tum erit inimicus (Att. ix. 2 λ . 2), but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.
 - sī ā corōnā relictus sim, nōn queam dīcere (Brut. 192), if I should be deserted by the circle of listeners, I should not be able to speak.
- Note. The Future Perfect is often used in the apodosis of a future condition: as, vehementer mihi grātum fēceris, sī hunc adulēscentem hūmānitāte tuā comprehenderis (Fam. xiii. 15), you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.
- d. Any form denoting or implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in -dus and -rus, and verbs of necessity, possibility, and the like:
 - alius fīnis constituendus est, sī prius quid maximē reprehendere Scīpio solitus sit dixero (Lael. 59), another limit must be set, if I first state what Scipio was wont most to find fault with.
 - sī mē praecēperit fātum, võs mandāsse mementō (Q. C. ix. 6. 26), if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this.
 - nisi oculis videritis insidiās Miloni ā Clodio factās, nec deprecatūri sumus nec postulatūri (Mil. 6), unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc.
 - non possum istum accūsāre, sī cupiam (Verr. iv. 87), I cannot accuse him, if I should (so) desire.
- 1 It often depends entirely upon the view of the writer at the moment, and not upon the nature of the condition, whether it shall be stated vividly or not; as in the proverbial "If the sky falls, we shall catch larks" the impossible condition is ironically put in the vivid form, to illustrate the absurdity of some other supposed condition stated by some one else.

- e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future (or Future Perfect) in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as already accomplished:
 - sī hōc bene fīxum in animō est, vīcistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.]
 - si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicimus (id. xxi. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.
- f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 517). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used:
 - non poterat, nisi decertare vellet (B. C. iii. 44), he was not able, unless he wished to fight.
 - tumulus appāruit, . . . sī lūce palam īrētur hostis praeventūrus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared . . . if they should go openly by daylight, the enemy would prevent. [The first two appear like Indirect Discourse, but are not. An observer describing the situation in the first example as present would say non potest nisi velit (see d), and no indirect discourse would be thought of.]
 - Caesar sī peteret, . . . non quicquam proficeret (Hor. S. i. 3. 4), if even Cæsar were to ask, he would gain nothing. [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply sī petat, non proficiat, thrown into past time.]

Conditions Contrary to Fact

- 517. In the statement of a supposition impliedly false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both protasis and apodosis.¹ The Imperfect refers to present time, the Pluperfect to past:
 - sī vīveret, verba ĉius audīrētis (Rosc. Com. 42), if he were living, you would hear his words. [Present.]
 - nisi tū āmīsissēs, numquam recēpissem (Cat. M. 11), unless you had lost it. I should not have recovered it. [Past.]
 - sī meum consilium valuisset, tū hodiē egērēs, rēs pūblica non tot ducēs āmisisset (Phil. ii. 37), if my judgment had prevailed [as it did not], you would this day be a beggar, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders. [Mixed Present and Past.]
- ¹ The implication of falsity, in this construction, is not inherent in the subjunctive; but comes from the transfer of a future condition to past time. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the moment of writing, already passed; so that, if the condition remains a condition, it must be contrary to fact. So past forms of the indicative implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see c, d, below, and § 511).

- a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist:
 - sī nihil litterīs adiuvārentur, numquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent (Arch. 16), if they had not been helped at all by literature, they never would have given their attention to the study of it. [Without the condition, adiuvābantur.]
 - hic si mentis esset suae, ausus esset éducere exercitum (Pison. 50), if he were of sane mind, would he have dared to lead out the army? [Here esset denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]
 - non concidissent, nisi illud receptăculum classibus nostris pateret (Verr. ii. 3), [the power of Carthage] would not have fallen, unless that station had been [constantly] open to our fleets. [Without the condition, patebat.]
- b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was intended, or likely, or already begun. In this use, the Imperfect Indicative corresponds in time to the Imperfect Subjunctive, and the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative to the Pluperfect Subjunctive:
 - sī licitum esset, mātrēs veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed.
 - in amplexus filiae ruebat, nisi lictores obstitissent (Tac. Ann. xvi. 32), he was about rushing into his daughter's arms, unless the lictors had opposed.
 - iam tüta tenēbam, nī gēns crūdēlis ferro invāsisset (Aen. vi. 858), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.
- Note 1.— Here the apodosis may be regarded as elliptical. Thus,—mātrēs veniēbant (et vēnissent), the matrons were coming (and would have kept on) if, etc.
- NOTE 2.—With paece (and sometimes prope), almost, the Perfect Indicative is used in the apodosis of a past condition contrary to fact: as,—pons iter paece hostibus dedit, nī ūnus vir fuisset (Liv. ii. 10), the bridge had almost given a passage to the foe, if it had not been for one hero.
- c. Verbs and other expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, duty, when used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact, may be put in the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative.

Such are oportet, decet, debeo, possum, necesse est, opus est, and the Second Periphrastic Conjugation:—1

- non potuit sieri sapiens, nisi natus esset (Fin. ii. 103), he could not have become a sage, if he had not been born.
- si privatus esset hoc tempore, tamen is erat deligendus (Manil. 50), if he were at this time a private citizen, yet he ought to be appointed.
- 1 Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of futurity (cf. p. 328, footnote). Thus, decet me [hodie] ire cras, means it is proper for me [to-day] to go to-morrow; and, decebat me [heri] ire hodie, it was proper for me [yesterday] to go to-day, usually with the implication that I have not gone as I was bound to do.

- quod esse caput debebat, si probari posset (Fin. iv. 23), what ought to be the main point, if it could be proved.
- sī ita putāsset, certē optābilius Milōnī fuit (Mil. 31), if he had thought so, surely it would have been preferable for Milo.
- Note 1. In Present conditions the Imperfect Subjunctive (oporteret, possem, etc.) is the rule, the Indicative being rare; in Past conditions both the Subjunctive (usually Pluperfect) and the Indicative (usually Perfect) are common.

For par erat, melius fuit, and the like, followed by the infinitive, see § 521. N.

- Note 2.—The indicative construction is carried still further in poetry: as,—sī non alium iactāret odorem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor.
- d. The participle in -urus with eram or ful may take the place of an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact:
 - quid enim futurum fuit [= fuisset], sI . . . (Liv. ii. 1), what would have happened if, etc.
 - relictürī agrös erant, nisi ad eös Metellus litterās mīsisset (Verr. iii. 121), they would have abandoned their fields, if Metellus had not sent them a letter.
 - neque ambigitur quin . . . id factūrus fuerit, sī . . . (Liv. ii. 1), nor is there any question that he would have done it, if, etc. [Direct: fēcisset.]
 - adeo parata seditio fuit ut Othonem raptūrī fuerint, nī incerta noctis timuissent (Tac. H. i. 26), so far advanced was the conspiracy that they would have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night. [In a main clause: rapuissent, nī timuissent.]
- e. The Present Subjunctive is sometimes used in poetry in the protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact:
 - ni comes admoneat, inruat (Aen. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him, he would have rushed on. [Cf. tū sī hic sīs, aliter sentiās (Ter. And. 310), if you were in my place, you would think differently.]
 - NOTE 1. This is probably a remnant of an old construction (see next note).
- Note 2.—In old Latin the Present Subjunctive (as well as the Imperfect) is used in present conditions contrary to fact and the Imperfect (more rarely the Pluperfect) in past conditions of the same kind. Thus it appears that the Imperfect Subjunctive, like the Imperfect Indicative, once denoted past time, even in conditional sentences. Gradually, however, in conditional sentences, the Present Subjunctive was restricted to the less vivid future and the Imperfect (in the main) to the present contrary to fact, while the Pluperfect was used in past conditions of this nature. The old construction, however, seems to have been retained as an archaism in poetry.
- f. In Plautus and Terence absque me (te, etc.) is sometimes used to introduce conditions contrary to fact:
 - absque të esset, hodië nusquam viverem (Pl. Men. 1022), if it were not for you, I should not be alive to-day.
 - absque eō esset, rēctē ego mihi vidissem (Ter. Ph. 188), if it had not been for him, I should have looked out for myself.

GENERAL CONDITIONS

- 518. General Conditions (§ 513.2) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following cases:—
- a. The Subjunctive is often used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an indefinite subject (you = any one). Here the Present Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis:
 - vīta hūmāna prope utī ferrum est: sī exerceās, conteritur; sī non exerceās, tamen robīgo interficit (Cato de M.), human life is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don't use it, rust still destroys it.
 - virtūtem necessāriō glōria, etiamsī tū id nōn agās, consequitur (Tusc. i. 91), glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one's aim.
 - sī prohibita impūne trānscenderis, neque metus ultrā neque pudor est (Tac. Ann. iii. 54), if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear or shame any more.
- b. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes the Perfect Indicative, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time, the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis:
 - sī quōs aliquā parte membrōrum inūtilīs nōtāvērunt, necārī iubent (Q. C. ix. 1. 25), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]
 - sī ā persequendō hostīs dēterrēre nequīverant, ab tergō circumveniēbant (Iug. 50), if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear. [Past.]
- c. In later writers (rarely in Cicero and Cæsar), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action in past time (Iterative Subjunctive):
 - sī quis ā dominō prehenderētur, concursū mīlitum ēripiēbātur (B. C. iii. 110), if any (runaway) was arrested by his master, he was (always) rescued by a mob of soldiers.
 - accūsātōrēs, sī facultās incideret, poenīs adficiēbantur (Tac. Ann. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.
 - sI quis collègam appellasset, ab eō ita discèdebat ut paenitèret non prioris decrèto stetisse (Liv. iii. 36. 8), if any one appealed to a colleague, he [always] came off in such case that he repented not having submitted to the decree of the former decemvir. [Cf. Socrates, quam se cumque in partem dedisset, omnium fuit facile princeps (De Or. iii. 60), in whatever direction Socrates turned himself, he was (always) easily the foremost (if in any, etc.).]

Conditional Relative Clauses

- 519. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may express a condition and take any of the constructions of Protasis¹ (§ 514):
 - qui enim vitils modum adponit, is partem suscipit vitiorum (Tusc. iv. 42), he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults. [= si quis adponit. Present, nothing implied.]
 - qui mentiri solet, pēierāre consuevit (Rosc. Com. 46), whoever is in the habit of lying, is accustomed to swear falsely. [= sī quis solet. Present, nothing implied.
 - quicquid potuit, potuit ipsa per se (Leg. Agr. i. 20), whatever power she had, she had by herself. [= sī quid potuit. Past, nothing implied.]
 - quod qui faciet, non aegritudine solum vacabit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38), and he who does (shall do) this, will be free not only, etc. [= si] quis faciet. Future, more vivid.]
 - quisquis hūc vēnerit, vāpulābit (Pl. Am. 309), whoever comes here shall get a thrashing. [= sī quis vēnerit. Future, more vivid.]
 - quō volēs, sequar (Clu. 71), whithersoever you wish (shall wish), I will follow. [= sī quō volēs. Future, more vivid.]
 - philosophia, cui qui păreat, omne tempus aetătissine molestiă possit degere (Cat. M. 2), philosophy, which if any one should obey, he would be able to spend his whole life without vexation. [= si quis päreat. Future, less vivid.]
 - quaecumque vos causa hüc attulisset, laetarer (De Or. ii. 15), I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did). [= si... attulisset. Contrary to fact.]

The relative in this construction is always indefinite in meaning, and very often in form.

- 520. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses: —
- 1. The Second Person Singular of the Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§ 518. a): bonus tantum modo segnior fit ubi neglegās, at malus improbior (Iug. 31. 28),
 - a good man merely becomes less diligent when you don't watch him, but a bad man becomes more shameless. [Present General Condition.]
- 2. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 518. b):
 - cum hūc vēnī, hōc ipsum nihil agere mē dēlectat (De Or. ii. 24), whenever I come here, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]
- 1 As in the Greek os av, orav, etc.; and in statutes in English, where the phrases if any person shall and whoever shall are used indifferently.

- cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]
- 3. In later writers (rarely in Cicero and Cæsar) the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 518. c):
 - ubi imbēcillitās māteriae postulāre vidērētur, pīlae interponuntur (B. C. ii. 16), wherever the weakness of the timber seemed to require, piles were put between. [Past General Condition: interponuntur = interponēbantur.]
 - quōcumque sẽ intulisset, victōriam sēcum trahēbat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him. [Past General Condition.]

Condition Disguised

- 521. In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought.
- a. The condition may be implied in a Clause, or in a Participle, Noun, Adverb, or some other word or phrase:
 - facile me paterer—illo ipso iudice quaerente—pro Sex. Roscio dicere (Rosc. Am. 85), I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial. [Present contrary to fact: si quaereret, paterer.]
 - non mihi, nisi admonito, venisset in mentem (De Or. ii. 180), it would not have come into my mind unless [I had been] reminded. [Past contrary to fact: nisi admonitus essem.]
 - nülla alia gens tantā mole clādis non obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster.

 [Past contrary to fact: si alia fuisset.]
 - nēmo umquam sine māgnā spē immortālitātis sē pro patriā offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact: nisi māgnam spem habēret.]
 - quid hunc paucōrum annōrum accessiō iuvāre potuisset (Lael. 11), what good could the addition of a few years have done him (if they had been added)?

 [Past contrary to fact: sī accessissent.]
 - quid igitur mihi ferārum laniātus oberit nihil sentientī (Tusc. i. 104), what harm will the mangling by wild beasts do me if I don't feel anything (feeling nothing)? [Future more vivid: sī nihil sentiam.]
 - incităta semel proclivi lăbuntur sustinerique nullo modo possunt (id. iv. 42), if once given a push, they slide down rapidly and can in no way be checked. [Present General: sī incităta sunt.]

- Note. In several phrases denoting necessity, propriety, or the like, the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative of esse is used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact, the protasis being implied in a subject infinitive (cf. 517. c):
 - quanto melius fuerat promissum non esse servatum (Off. iii. 94), how much better would it have been if the promise had not been kept! [promissum . . . servatum = sī promissum non esset servatum.]
 - morī praeclārum fuit (Att. viii. 2. 2), it would have been honorable to die.
 - sed erat aequius Triārium aliquid dē dissēnsione nostrā iūdicāre (Fin. ii. 119), but it would be more equitable if Triarius passed judgment on our dispute. [Triārium iūdicāre = sī Triārius iūdicāret.]
 - satius fuit āmittere mīlitēs (Inv. ii. 73), it would have been better to lose the soldiers. [āmittere = sī āmīsisset.]
- **b.** The condition may be contained in a wish (Optative Subjunctive), or expressed as an exhortation or command (Hortatory Subjunctive or Imperative):
 - utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nobis non esset (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been). [Optative Subjunctive.]
 - nātūram expellās furcā, tamen ūsque recurret (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 24), drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return. [Hortatory.]
 - rogës enim Aristonem, neget (Fin. iv. 69), for ask Aristo, he would deny.
 - manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cat. M. 22), old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence (§ 528. N.). [Hortatory.]
 - tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 30), remove this notion, and you will have done away with grief. [Imperative.]
- Note. The so-called Concessive Subjunctive with ut and ne often has the force of protasis (§ 527. a. n.): as, ut enim rationem Plato nullam adferret, ipsā auctoritāte mē frangeret (Tusc. i. 49), even if Plato gave no reasons, [still] he would overpower me by his mere authority.
 - c. Rarely the condition takes the form of an independent clause:
 - rīdēs: mâiōre cachinnō concutitur (Iuv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).
 - commovē: sentiēs (Tusc. iv. 54), stir him up, [and] you'll find, etc.
 - dē paupertāte agitur: multī patientēs pauperēs commemorantur (id. iii. 57), we speak of poverty; many patient poor are mentioned.

For Conditional Relative Clauses, see §§ 519, 520.

Condition Omitted

- 522. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument:
 - poterat Sextilius impūne negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 55), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had denied)?

- a. In expressions signifying necessity, propriety, and the like, the Indicative may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact:
 - quod contra decuit ab illo meum [corpus cremari] (Cat. M. 84), whereas on the other hand mine ought to have been burnt by him.
 - nam nos decebat domum lugere ubi esset aliquis in lucem editus (Tusc. i. 115), for it were fitting for us to mourn the house where a man has been born (but we do not).
 - quanto melius fuerat (Off. iii. 94), how much better it would have been.
 - illud erat aptius, aequum cuique concedere (Fin. iv. 2), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.
 - ipsum enim exspectare magnum fuit (Phil. ii. 103), would it have been a great matter to wait for the man himself?
 - longum est ea dicere, sed . . . (Sest. 12), it would be tedious to tell, etc. [Future.]
- NOTE 1.—In this construction, the Imperfect Indicative refers to present time; the Pluperfect to simple past time, like the Perfect. Thus oportebat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oportuerat means it ought to have been, but was not.
- Note 2.—In many cases it is impossible to say whether a protasis was present to the mind of the speaker or not (see third example above).

Complex Conditions

- 523. Either the Protasis or the Apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised:
 - sī quis hōrum dīxisset . . . sī verbum dē rē pūblicā fēcisset . . . multa plūra dīxisse quam dīxisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), if any of these had spoken, in case he had said a word about politics he would be thought to have said much more than he did say. [Here the apodosis of dīxisset is the whole of the following statement (sī . . . putārētur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: sī verbum, etc.].
 - quod sī in hōc mundō fierī sine deō nōn potest, nē in sphaerā quidem eōsdem mōtūs sine dīvīnō ingeniō potuisset imitārī (Tusc. i. 63), now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimedes] in his orrery have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius. [Here sī potest (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but potuisset has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in sine... ingeniō.]
 - peream male si non optimum erat (Hor. S. ii. 1. 6), confound me (may I perish wretchedly) if it would n't be better. [Here peream is apodosis to the rest of the sentence, while the true protasis to optimum erat, contrary to fact, is omitted.]

§ 524

Clauses of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted)

524. Conditional Clauses of Comparison take the Subjunctive, usually in the Present or Perfect unless the sequence of tenses requires the Imperfect or Pluperfect.

Such clauses are introduced by the comparative particles tamquam, tamquam sī, quasi, ac sī, ut sī, velut sī (later velut), poetic ceu (all meaning as if), and by quam sī (than if):—

tamquam clausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.

tamquam si claudus sim (Pl. Asin. 427), just as if I were lame.

ita hos [honores] petunt, quasi honeste vixerint (Iug. 85), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.

quasi vērō nōn speciē vīsa iūdicentur (Acad. ii. 58), as if forsooth visible things were not judged by their appearance.

similiter facis ac sī mē rogēs (N. D. iii. 8), you do exactly as if you asked me. crūdēlitātem horrērent velut sī cōram adesset (B. G. i. 32), they dreaded his cruelty (they said), as if he were present in person.

hic ingentem pugnam cernimus ceu cetera nusquam bella forent (Aen. ii. 438), here we saw a great battle, as if there were no fighting elsewhere. [But sometimes with the indicative in poetry, as id. v. 88.]

magis ā mē abesse vidēbāre quam sī domī essēs (Att. vi. 5), you seemed to be absent from me more than if you were at home.

NOTE 1.—These subjunctive clauses are really future conditions with apodosis implied in the particle itself. Thus in tamquam sī claudus sim the protasis is introduced by sī, and the apodosis implied in tamquam.

- NOTE 2. The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive (contrary to fact) with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages. Thus the second example above is translated just as if I were lame, as if it were a present condition contrary to fact; but it really means just as [it would be] if I should [at some future time] be lame, and so is a less vivid future condition requiring the Present Subjunctive. Similarly quasi honeste vixerint, as if they had lived honorably, is really as [they would do in the future] if they should have lived honorably and so requires the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 516. c).
- a. Even after a primary tense, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive (contrary to fact) is often used in conditional clauses of comparison:
 - aequē ā tē petō ac sī mea negōtia essent (Fam. xiii. 43), I entreat you as much as if it were my own business.
 - êius negōtium sīc velim suscipiās ut sī esset rēs mea (id. vii. 20. 1), I would have you undertake his business as though it were my affair.

NOTE. — The practice differs with the different particles. Thus in Cicero a clause with tamquam or quasi almost always observes the sequence of tenses, but with quam si the Imperfect or Pluperfect is the rule.

Use of sī and its Compounds

- 525. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows:—
- a. Sī is used for affirmative, nisi (nī) and sī non for negative conditions.
- 1. With nisi (generally unless) the apodosis is stated as universally true except in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) not true:
 - nisi Conon adest, maereo, unless Conon is here, I mourn (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).
- 2. With sī non (if not) the apodosis is only stated as true in the (negative) case supposed, but as to other cases no statement is made:
 - sī Conon non adest, maereo, if Conon is not here, I mourn (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).

Note. — It often makes no difference in which of these forms the condition is stated.

3. Sometimes nisi sī, except if, unless, occurs: —

noli putare me ad quemquam longiores cristulas scribere, nisi si quis ad me plura scripsit (Fam. xiv. 2), . . . excep. rase one writes more to me.

Note. — Ni is an old form surviving in a few convential phrases and reappearing in poets and later writers.

- b. Nisi vērō and nisi forte regularly introduce an objection or exception ironically, and take the Indicative:
 - nisi vērō L. Caesar crūdēlior vīsus est (Cat. iv. 13), unless indeed Lucius Cæsar seemed too cruel.
 - nisi forte volumus Epicureōrum opiniōnem sequi (Fat. 37), unless, to be sure, we choose to follow the notion of the Epicureans.

NOTE. — This is the regular way of introducing a reductio ad absurdum in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense: as, — nisi ūnum hōc faciam ut in puteo cēnam coquant (Pl. Aul. 365), unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.

c. Sive (seu)... sive (seu), whether... or, introduce a condition in the form of an alternative. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb:—

nam illö locö libentissimë soleö ūtī, sīve quid mēcum ipse cögitö, sīve quid scrībö aut legö (Legg. ii. 1), for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself, or am either writing or reading.

Note. — Sive . . . seu and seu . . . sive are late or poetic.

- d. Sin, but if, often introduces a supposition contrary to one that precedes:
 - accūsātor illum dēfendet sī poterit; sīn minus poterit, negābit (Inv. ii. 88), the accuser will defend him if he can; but if he cannot, he will deny.
- e. Nisi is often used loosely by the comic poets in the sense of only when a negative (usually nesciō) is expressed, or easily understood, in the main clause:—

nescio: nisi me dixisse nemini certo scio (Ter. Ph. 952), I don't know: only I am sure that I have n't told anybody.

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

- 526. The concessive idea is rather vague and general, and takes a variety of forms, each of which has its distinct history. Sometimes concession is expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive in a sentence grammatically independent (§ 440), but it is more frequently and more precisely expressed by a dependent clause introduced by a concessive particle. The concessive force lies chiefly in the Conjunctions (which are indefinite or conditional in origin), and is often made clearer by an adversative particle (tamen, certē) in the main clause. As the Subjunctive may be used in independent clauses to express a concession, it is also employed in concessive clauses, and somewhat more frequently than the indicative.
- 527. The Particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are quamvis, ut that, etsi, tametsi, etiam si, quamquam, and cum. Some of these take the Subjunctive, others the Indicative, ac-

cording to the nature of the clause which each introduces.

- a. Quamvis and ut take the Subjunctive:
 - quamvis ipsi infantës sint, tamen . . . (Or. 76), however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.
 - quamvis scelerātī illī fuissent (De Or. i. 230), however guilty they might have been.
 - quamvis comis in amicis tuendis fuerit (Fin. ii. 80), amiable as he may have been in keeping his friends.
 - ut nëminem alium rogasset (Mil. 46), even if he had asked no other.
 - ut enim non efficias quod vis, tamen mors ut malum non sit efficies (Tusc. i. 16), for even if you do not accomplish what you wish, still you will prove that death is not an evil.
 - ut rationem Plato nullam adferret (id. i. 49), though Plato adduced no reasons.
- NOTE. Quamvis means literally as much as you will. Thus in the first example above, let them be as incapable as you will, still, etc. The subjunctive with quamvis is hortatory, like that with ne (§ 440); that with ut (ut non) is of uncertain origin.
 - b. Licet, although, takes the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:—
 licet omnës mihi terrorës periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 31), though all
 terrors and perils should menace me.

- Note. Licet is properly a verb in the present tense, meaning it is granted. Hence the subjunctive is by the sequence of tenses limited to the Present and Perfect. The concessive clause with licet is hortatory in origin, but may be regarded as a substantive clause serving as the subject of the impersonal verb (§ 565. N. 1).
- c. Etsi, etiam si, tametsi, even if, take the same constructions as si (see $\S 514$):
 - etsī abest mātūritās, tamen non est inūtile (Fam. vi. 18. 4), though ripeness of age is wanting, yet it is not useless, etc.
 - etsi numquam dubium fuit, tamen perspicio (id. v. 19), although it has never been doubtful, yet I perceive, etc.
 - etsi statueram (id. v. 5), though I had determined.
 - etsī nihil aliud abstulissētis, tamen contentos vos esse oportēbat (Sull. 90), even if you had taken away nothing else, you ought to have been satisfied.
 - etiam sī quod scrībās non habēbis, scrībito tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.
 - sed ea tametsī võs parvī pendēbātis (Sall. Cat. 52. 9), but although you regarded those things as of small account.
 - Note 1. Tametsi with the subjunctive is very rare.
- Note 2.—A protasis with $s\bar{s}$ often has a concessive force: as,—ego, $s\bar{s}$ essent inimicitiae mihi cum C. Caesare, tamen hōc tempore re \bar{s} publicae consulere . . . deberem (Prov. Cons. 47), as for me, even if I had private quarrels with Cæsar, it would still be my duty to serve the best interests of the state at this crisis.
- d. Quamquam, although, introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicative:
 - omnibus quamquam ruit ipse suis clādibus pestem dēnūntiat (Phil. xiv. 8), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.
- Note. Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a new proposition in the indicative: as, quamquam haec quidem iam tolerābilia vidēbantur, etsī, etc. (Mil. 76), and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.
- e. The poets and later writers frequently use quamvis and quamquam like etsi, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition:—

quamquam movērētur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.

Pollio amat nostram, quamvis est rüstica, müsam (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollio loves my muse, though she is rustic.

quamvis perveneras (Liv. ii. 40), though you had come.

f. Ut, as, with the Indicative, may be equivalent to a concession: vērum ut errāre potuistī, sīc dēcipī tē non potuisse quis non videt (Fam. x. 20. 2), suppose you could have been mistaken, who does not see that you cannot have been deceived in this way?

For cum concessive, see § 549; for qui concessive, see § 535. e. For concession expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive (negative ne), see § 440.

CLAUSES OF PROVISO

528. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum ut, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive. The negative with these particles is nē:

oderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), let them hate, if only they fear.

valētūdo modo bona sit (Brut. 64), provided the health be good.

dummodo inter më atque të mūrus intersit (Cat. i. 10), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.

tantum ut sciant (Att. xvi. 11. 1), provided only they know.

modo në sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 105), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.

id faciat saepe, dum në lassus fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.

dummodo ea (sevēritās) nē variētur (Q. Fr. i. 1. 20), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.

tantum në noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), only let it do no harm.

Note.—The Subjunctive with mode is hortatory or optative; that with dum and dummode, a development from the use of the Subjunctive with dum in temporal clauses, § 553 (compare the colloquial so long as my health is good, I don't care).

- a. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso:
 - sint Maecēnātēs, non deerunt Marones (Mart. viii. 56. 5), so there be Mæcenases, Virgils will not be lacking.
- b. The Subjunctive with ut (negative ne) is sometimes used to denote a proviso, usually with ita in the main clause:—

probata condicio est, sed ita ut ille praesidia deduceret (Att. vii. 14. 1). the terms were approved, but only on condition that he should withdraw the garrisons.

Note. — This is a development of the construction of Characteristic or Result. For a clause of Characteristic expressing Proviso, see § 535. d.

CLAUSES OF PURPOSE (FINAL CLAUSES)

- 529. The Subjunctive in the clause of Purpose is hortatory in origin, coming through a kind of indirect discourse construction (for which see § 592). Thus, misit legatos qui dicerent means he sent ambassadors who should say, i.e. who were directed to say; in the direct orders the verb would be dicite, which would become dicant in the Indirect Discourse of narrative (§ 588) or dicerent in the past (cf. hortatory subjunctive in past tenses, § 439. b). The Subjunctive with ut and ne is, in general, similar in origin.
 - 530. A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.
- 531. Final Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative në (ut në), or by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb:—

- 1. Pure Clauses of Purpose, with ut (uti) or në (ut në), express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause:
 - ab arātrō abdūxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset (Fin. ii. 12), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.
 - ut sint auxilio suis, subsistunt (B. C. i. 80), they halt in order to support (be an aid to) their own men.
 - në militës oppidum inrumperent, portës obstruit (id. i. 27), he barricaded the gates, in order that the soldiers might not break into the town.
 - scālās parārī iubet, ne quam facultātem dīmittat (id. i. 28), he orders scaling-ladders to be got ready, in order not to let slip any opportunity.
 - ut ne sit impune (Mil. 31), that it be not with impunity.
- Note 1.—Sometimes the conjunction has a correlative (ideo, ideirco, eo consilio, etc.) in the main clause (cf. § 561. a):
 - legum idcirco servi sumus, ut liberi simus (Clu. 146), for this reason we are subject to the laws, that we may be free.
 - copias transduxit eo consilio, ut castellum expugnaret (cf. B. G. ii. 9), he led the troops across with this design—to storm the fort.
- Note 2. Ut non sometimes occurs in clauses of purpose when non belongs to some particular word: as, ut plura non dicam (Manil. 44), to avoid unnecessary talk.
- 2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the relative pronoun qui or a relative adverb (ubi, unde, quō, etc.). The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause:
 - mittitur L. Dēcidius Saxa qui loci nātūram perspiciat (B. C. i. 66), Lucius Decidius Saxa is sent to examine the ground (who should examine, etc.).
 - scribebat orationes quas alii dicerent (Brut. 206), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.
 - eō exstinctō fore unde discerem nëminem (Cat. M. 12), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.
 - huic në ubi consisteret quidem contra të locum reliquisti (Quinct. 73), you have left him no ground even to make a stand against you.
 - habēbam quō confugerem (Fam. iv. 6. 2), I had [a retreat] whither I might flee.
 - Note. In this construction qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (§ 537. 2).
- a. The ablative quo (= ut eo) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative:
 - comprimere eōrum audāciam, quō facilius cēterōrum animī frangerentur (Fam. xv. 4. 10), to repress their audacity, that the spirit of the others might be broken more easily (by which the more easily).
 - lībertāte ūsus est, quō impūnius dicāx esset (Quinct. 11), he took advantage of liberty, that he might bluster with more impunity.
- Note. Occasionally quo introduces a final clause that does not contain a comparative: as, L. Sulla exercitum, quo sibi fidum faceret, luxuriose habuerat (Sall. Cat. 11), Lucius Sulla had treated the army luxuriously, in order to make it devoted to him. For quominus (= ut eo minus) after verbs of hindering, see § 558. b.

- 532. The principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context:
 - ac në longum sit... iussimus (Cat. iii. 10), and, not to be tedious, we ordered, etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious, I say we ordered.]
 - sed ut ad Dionysium redeamus (Tusc. v. 63), but to return to Dionysius.
 - sed ut eodem revertar, causa haec fuit timoris (Fam. vi. 7. 3), but, to return to the same point, this was the cause of fear.
 - satis inconsiderati fuit, në dicam audacis (Phil. xiii. 12), it was the act of one rash enough, not to say daring.
- Note 1. By a similar ellipsis the Subjunctive is used with nedum (sometimes ne), still less, not to mention that:—

nēdum salvī esse possīmus (Clu. 95), much less could we be safe.

- nēdum istī non statim conquisītūrī sint aliquid sceleris et flagitī (Leg. Agr. ii. 97), far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.
- nēdum in marī et viā sit facile (Fam. xvi. 8), still less is it easy at sea and on a journey.
- quippe secundae res sapientium animos fatigant; ne illi corruptis moribus victoriae temperarent (Sall. Cat. 11), for prosperity overmasters the soul even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.
- Note 2. With nedum the verb itself is often omitted: as, aptius hūmānitātī tuae quam tota Peloponnesus, nedum Patrae (Fam. vii. 28. 1), fitter for your refinement than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patræ.

For Substantive Clauses involving purpose, see §§ 563-566.

533. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except in idiomatic expressions and rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 460).

The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered —

- (1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 531. 1).]
- (2) vēnērunt qui pācem peterent. [Final clause with Relative (§ 531. 2).]
- (3) [vēnērunt ad petendum pācem.] Not found with transitive verbs (§ 506, N. 2), but cf. ad pārendum senātuī. [Gerund with ad (§ 506).]
- (4) vēnērunt ad petendam pācem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 506).]
- (5) vēnērunt pācem petendī causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerund with causā (§ 504. b).]
- (6) vēnērunt pācis petendae causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerundive with causā (§ 504. b).]
- (7) vēnērunt pācem petītūrī. [Future participle (§ 499. 2); in later writers.]
- (8) vēnērunt pācem petītum. [Supine in -um (§ 509).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but—

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negative ne), unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which case a relative is more common:—

- lēgātōs ad Dumnorigem mittunt, ut eō dēprecātōre ā Sēquanīs impetrārent (B. G. i. 9), they send envoys to Dumnorix, in order through his intercession to obtain (this favor) from the Sequani.
- milites misit ut eos qui fügerant persequerentur (id. v. 10), he sent the soldiers to follow up those who had fled.
- Cūriō praemittit equitēs qui prīmum impetum sustineant (B. C. ii. 26), Curio sends forward cavalry to withstand the first attack.
- b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.
- c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 509).
- d. The Future Participle used to express purpose is a late construction of inferior authority (§ 499. 2).

For the poetical Infinitive of Purpose, see § 460. c. For the Present Participle in a sense approaching that of purpose, see § 490. 3.

CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC

534. The relative clause of Characteristic with the Subjunctive is a development peculiar to Latin. A relative clause in the Indicative merely states something as a fact which is true of the antecedent; a characteristic clause (in the Subjunctive) defines the antecedent as a person or thing of such a character that the statement made is true of him or it and of all others belonging to the same class. Thus,—non potest exercitum is continere imperator qui se ipse non continet (indicative) means simply, that commander who does not (as a fact) restrain himself cannot restrain his army; whereas non potest exercitum is continere imperator qui se ipse non contineat (subjunctive) would mean, that commander who is not such a man as to restrain himself, etc., that is, who is not characterized by self-restraint.

This construction has its origin in the potential use of the subjunctive (§ 445). Thus, in the example just given, quī sē ipse non contineat would mean literally, who would not restrain himself (in any supposable case), and this potential idea passes over easily into that of general quality or characteristic. The characterizing force is most easily felt when the antecedent is indefinite or general. But this usage is extended in Latin to cases which differ but slightly from statements of fact, as in some of the examples below.

The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic. Thus, non sum ita hebes ut hace dicam means literally, I am not dull in the manner (degree) in which I should say this, hence, I am not so dull as to say this. Since, then, the characteristic often appears in the form of a supposed result, the construction readily passes over into Pure Result, with no idea of characteristic; as,—tantus in cūriā clāmor factus est ut populus concurreret (Verr. ii. 47), such an outcry was made in the senate-house that the people hurried together.

535. A Relative Clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a *characteristic* of the antecedent, especially where the antecedent is otherwise *undefined*:—

- neque enim tū is es qui nesciās (Fam. v. 12.6), for you are not such a one as not to know. [Here is is equivalent to such, and is defined only by the relative clause that follows.]
- multa dicunt quae vix intellegam (Fin. iv. 2), they say many things which (such as) I hardly understand.
- pācī quae nihil habitūra sit īnsidiārum semper est consulendum (Off. i. 35), we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.
- a. A Relative Clause of Characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions which imply a negative.

So especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? —

- sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 18), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.
- erant qui cënsërent (B. C. ii. 30), there were some who were of the opinion, etc. erant qui Helvidium miserarentur (Tac. Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (N. 8, below).]
- quis est qui id non maximis efferat laudibus (Lael. 24), who is there that does not extol it with the highest praise?
- nihil video quod timeam (Fam. ix. 16. 3), I see nothing to fear.
- nihil est quod adventum nostrum extimescas (Fam. ix. 26. 4), there is no reason why you should dread my coming.
- unde agger comportari posset nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), there was nothing left from which an embankment could be got together.
- NOTE 1.—After general negatives like nemo est qui, the Subjunctive is regular; after general affirmatives like sunt qui, it is the prevailing construction, but the Indicative sometimes occurs; after multi (non nulli, quidam) sunt qui, and similar expressions in which the antecedent is partially defined, the choice of mood depends on the shade of meaning which the writer wishes to express:
 - sunt bestiae quaedam in quibus inest aliquid simile virtutis (Fin. v. 38), there are certain animals in which there is something like virtue.
 - But, inventī multī sunt quī vītam profundere pro patriā parātī essent (Off. i. 84), many were found of such a character as to be ready to give their lives for their country.
- NOTE 2.—Characteristic clauses with sunt qui etc. are sometimes called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be carefully distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in *protasis* (§ 520).
- NOTE 3. The phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc. are used like est qui, sunt qui: as,—ac fuit cum mihi quoque initium requiescendi fore iustum arbitrarer (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part.
 - b. A Relative Clause of Characteristic may follow unus and solus:
 - nil admirāri prope rēs est üna solaque quae possit facere et servare beatum (Hor. Ep. i. 6. 1), to wonder at nothing is almost the sole and only thing that can make and keep one happy.
 - sõlus es cûius in victoria ceciderit nemo nisi armatus (Deiot. 34), you are the only man in whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.

- c. A clause of Result or Characteristic with quam ut, quam qui (rarely with quam alone), may be used after comparatives:—
 - Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur veritatem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should).
 - mâiores arbores caedebant quam quas ferre miles posset (Liv. xxxiii. 5), they cut trees too large for a soldier to carry (larger than what a soldier could carry).
 - Note. This construction corresponds in sense to the English too . . . to.
- d. A relative clause of characteristic may express restriction or proviso (cf. § 528. b):
 - quod sciam, so far as I know (lit. as to what I know).
 - Catonis orationes, quas quidem invenerim (Brut. 65), the speeches of Cato, at least such as I have discovered.
 - servus est nēmō, qui modo tolerābili condicione sit servitūtis (Cat. iv. 16), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.
- e. A Relative Clause of Characteristic may express cause or concession:
 - peccāsse mihi videor qui ā tē discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you. [Causal.]
 - virum simplicem qui nos nihil celet (Or. 230), O guileless man, who hides nothing from us! [Causal.]
 - egomet qui sero Graecas litteras attigissem, tamen complüres Athenis dies sum commoratus (De Or. i. 82), I myself, though I began Greek literature late, yet, etc. (lit. [a man] who, etc.). [Concessive.]
- Note 1.—In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpote, or quippe:
 - nec consul, ut qui id ipsum quaesisset, moram certamini fecit (Liv. xlii. 7), nor did the consul delay the fight, since he had sought that very thing (as [being one] who had sought, etc.).
 - Lūcius, frāter êius, utpote qui peregrē dēpūgnārit, familiam dūcit (Phil. v. 30), Lucius, his brother, leads his household, inasmuch as he is a man who has fought it out abroad.
 - convivia cum patre non inibat, quippe qui ne in oppidum quidem nisi perraro veniret (Rosc. Am. 52), he did not go to dinner parties with his father, since he did not even come to town except very rarely.
- NOTE 2.—The Relative of Cause or Concession is merely a variety of the Characteristic construction. The quality expressed by the Subjunctive is connected with the action of the main verb either as cause on account of which (SINCE) or as hindrance in spite of which (ALTHOUGH).
- f. Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus take a subjunctive clause with a relative (rarely ut). The negative is non:
 - digna in quibus ëlaborarent (Tusc. i. 1), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).
 - digna res est ubi tu nervos intendas tuos (Ter. Eun. 312), the affair is worthy of your stretching your sinews (worthy wherein you should, etc.).

idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 57), fit to obtain.

indigni ut redimerēmur (Liv. xxii. 59. 17), unworthy to be ransomed.

Note 1. — This construction is sometimes explained as a relative clause of purpose, but it is more closely related to characteristic.

Note 2. — With dignus etc., the poets often use the Infinitive: —

fons rivo dare nomen idoneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16. 12), a source fit to give a name to a stream.

aetās mollis et apta regi (Ov. A. A. i. 10), a time of life soft and easy to be guided. vivere dīgnus erās (Ov. M. x. 633), you were worthy to live.

CLAUSES OF RESULT (CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES)

- 536. The Subjunctive in Consecutive Clauses is a development of the use of that mood in Clauses of Characteristic (as explained in § 534).
- 537. Clauses of Result take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a relative pronoun or relative adverb.
- 1. Pure Clauses of Result, with ut or ut non, express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause:
 - tanta vis probitātis est ut eam in hoste diligāmus (Lael. 29), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy.
 - pügnātur ācriter ad novissimum agmen, adeō ut paene terga convertant (B. C. i. 80), there is sharp fighting in the rear, so (to such a degree) that they almost take flight.
 - multa rūmor adfingēbat, ut paene bellum confectum vidērētur (id. i. 53), rumor added many false reports, so that the war seemed almost ended.
- 2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the relative pronoun qui or a relative adverb (ubi, unde, quō, etc.). The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.

The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative: — qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on:

- nam est innocentia affectio talis animi quae noceat nemini (Tusc. iii. 16), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.
- sunt aliae causae quae planë efficiant (Top. 59), there are other causes such as to bring to pass.
- nulla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tusc. i. 43), there is no swiftness which can compare with the swiftness of the mind.
- quis nāvigāvit quī non sē mortis perīculo committeret (Manil. 31), who went to sea who did not incur the peril of death?
- NOTE 1.—Since the relative clause of Result is a development from the relative clause of Characteristic (§ 534), no sharp line can be drawn between the two constructions. In doubtful cases, it is better to attempt no distinction or to describe the clause as one of Characteristic.
- Note 2. Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tālis, tantus, ita, sīc, adeō, ūsque eō, which belong to the main clause.

- a. A Negative Result is introduced by ut non, ut nemo, qui non, etc., not by ne:
 - multīs gravibusque volneribus confectus ut iam sē sustinēre non posset (B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.
 - tantā vī in Pompēi equitēs impetum fēcērunt ut eōrum nēmō cōnsisteret (B. C. iii. 93), they attacked Pompey's cavalry with such vigor that not one of them stood his ground.
 - nëmö est tam senex qui së annum non putet posse vivere (Cat. M. 24), nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.
- Note. When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), ut në or në is sometimes used as being less positive than ut non: [librum] ita corrigas në mihi noceat (Caecina, Fam. vi. 7. 6), correct the book so that it may not hurt me.
- b. Frequently a clause of result or characteristic is used in a restrictive sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 535. d):
 - hoc ita est utile ut no plane inludamur ab accusatoribus (Rosc. Am. 55), this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).
 - nihil autem est molestum quod non desideres (Cat. M. 47), but nothing is troublesome which (= provided that) you do not miss.
- c. The clause of result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with TO or SO AS TO or an equivalent:
 - tam longë aberam ut non vidërem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see; cf. § 535. c).
- Note. Result is never expressed by the Infinitive in Latin except by the poets in a few passages (\S 461. a).
- 538. The constructions of Purpose and Result are precisely alike in the affirmative (except sometimes in tense sequence, § 485. c); but, in the negative, Purpose takes ne, Result ut non etc.:—

cüstödītus est nē effugeret, he was guarded in order that he might not escape. cüstödītus est ut non effugeret, he was guarded so that he did not escape.

So in negative Purpose clauses në quis, në quid, në ullus, në quo, në quando, nëcubi, etc. are almost always used; in negative Result clauses, ut nëmo, ut nihil, ut nullus, etc.:—

- (1) cernere në quis eos, neu quis contingere posset (Aen. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them. [Purpose.]
- nē quando liberis proscriptorum bona patria reddantur (Rosc. Am. 145), lest at some time the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.
- ipse në quö inciderem, reverti Formiäs (Att. viii. 3. 7), that I might not come upon him anywhere, I returned to Formiæ.

- dispositis exploratoribus necubi Romani copias traducerent (B. G. vii. 35), having stationed scouts here and there in order that the Romans might not lead their troops across anywhere.
- (2) multi ita sunt imbēcillī senēs ut nūllum officī mūnus exsequi possint (Cat. M. 35), many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform any duty to society. [Result.]
- qui summum bonum sic instituit ut nihil habeat cum virtüte coniunctum (Off. i. 5), who has so settled the highest good that it has nothing in common with virtue.

For clauses of Result or Characteristic with quin, see § 559. For Substantive Clauses of Result, see §§ 567-571.

CAUSAL CLAUSES

539. Causal Clauses take either the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to their construction; the idea of cause being contained, not in the mood itself, but in the form of the argument (by implication), in an antecedent of causal meaning (like propterea), or in the connecting particles.

Quod is in origin the relative pronoun (stem quo-) used adverbially in the accusative neuter (cf. § 214. d) and gradually sinking to the position of a colorless relative conjunction (cf. English that and see § 222). Its use as a causal particle is an early special development. Quia is perhaps an accusative plural neuter of the relative stem qui-, and seems to have developed its causal sense more distinctly than quod, and at an earlier period. It is used (very rarely) as an interrogative, why? (so in classical Latin with nam only), and may, like quando, have developed from an interrogative to a relative particle.

Quoniam (for quom iam) is also of relative origin (quom being a case-form of the pronominal stem quo-). It occurs in old Latin in the sense of when (cf. quom, cum), from which the causal meaning is derived (cf. cum causal). The Subjunctive with quod and quia depends on the principle of Informal Indirect Discourse (§ 592).

Quando is probably the interrogative quam (how?) compounded with a form of the pronominal stem do- (cf. dum, do-nec). It originally denoted time (first interrogatively, then as a relative), and thus came to signify cause. Unlike quod and quia, it is not used to state a reason in informal indirect discourse and therefore is never followed by the Subjunctive.

- 540. The Causal Particles quod and quia take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of another:—
 - 1. Indicative:
 - cum tibi agam grātiās quod mē vīvere coēgistī (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.
 - cūr igitur pācem holo? quia turpis est (Phil. vii. 9), why then do I not wish for peace? Because it is disgraceful.
 - ita fit ut adsint proptereā quod officium sequuntur, taceant autem quia periculum vitant (Rosc. Am. 1), so it happens that they attend because they follow duty, but are silent because they seek to avoid danger.

2. Subjunctive: —

- mihi grātulābāre quod audīssēs mē meam prīstinam dignitātem obtinēre (Fam. iv. 14. 1), you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard that I had regained my former dignity.
- noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs quod somnum capere non posset (Tusc. iv. 44), Themistocles used to walk about at night because [as he said] he could not sleep.
- mea mater îrata est quia non redierim (Pl. Cist. 101), my mother is angry because I did n't return.

NOTE 1. — Quod introduces either a fact or a statement, and accordingly takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Quia regularly introduces a fact; hence it rarely takes the Subjunctive. Quoniam, inasmuch as, since, when now, now that, has reference to motives, excuses, justifications, and the like and takes the Indicative.

NOTE 2.—Under this head what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive (§ 592. 3. N.): as,—ego laeta visa sum quia soror vēnisset (Pl. Mil. 387), I seemed (in my dream) glad because my sister had come.

So with quod even a verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive: as, — rediit quod se oblitum nescio quid diceret (Off. i. 40), he returned because he said he had forgotten something.

NOTE 3.—Non quod, non quia, non quo, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive; but the Indicative sometimes occurs when the statement is in itself true, though not the true reason. In the negative, non quin (with the Subjunctive) may be used in nearly the same sense as non quod non. After a comparative, quam quo or quam quod is used:—

- pugiles ingemescunt, non quod doleant, sed quia profundenda voce omne corpus intenditur (Tusc. ii. 56), boxers groan, not because they are in pain, but because by giving vent to the voice the whole body is put in a state of tension.
- non quia rectior ad Alpis via esset, sed credens (Liv. xxi. 31. 2), not because the route to the Alps was more direct, but believing, etc.
- non quin pari virtute et voluntate alii fuerint, sed tantam causam non habuërunt (Phil. vii. 6), not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so strong a reason.
- haec amore magis impulsus scribenda ad tē putāvī, quam quō tē arbitrārer monitīs et praeceptīs egēre (Fam. x. 3. 4), this I thought I ought to write to you, rather from the impulse of (prompted by) affection than because I thought that you needed advice and suggestion.
- a. Quoniam and quando, since, introduce a reason given on the authority of the writer or speaker, and take the Indicative:
 - locus est ā mē, quoniam ita Murēna voluit, retrāctandus (Mur. 54), I must review the point, since Murena has so wished.
 - quando ita vis. di bene vortant (Pl. Trin. 573), since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.
 - quando ad maiora nati sumus (Fin. v. 21), since we are born for greater things.

NOTE. — The Subjunctive with quoniam is unclassical. Quando, since, in the causal sense, is mostly archaic or late. Quando, when, is used as interrogative, relative, and indefinite: as, — quando? hodie, when? to-day; sī quando, if ever.

- b. Causal clauses introduced by quod, quia, quoniam, and quando take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 580).
- c. A Relative, when used to express cause, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 535. e).
 - d. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 549).

For Substantive Clauses with quod, see § 572.

, TEMPORAL CLAUSES

541. Temporal Clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin. They are construed like other relative clauses, except where they have developed into special idiomatic constructions.¹

For list of Temporal Particles, see p. 138.

Temporal Clauses may be classified as follows:—

- I. Conditional Relative Clauses: ubi, ut, cum, quando, in Protasis (§ 542).
- II. Clauses with postquam, ubi, etc. (Indicative), (§ 543).
- III. Clauses with cum { 1. Cum temporal (§§ 545-548). 2. Cum causal or concessive (§ 549).
- IV. Clauses with antequam and priusquam (Indicative or Subjunctive) (§ 551).
- V. Clauses with dum, donec, and quoad (Indicative or Subjunctive) (§§ 552-556).

Conditional Relative Clauses

- 542. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, either alone or compounded with -cumque, may be used as Indefinite Relatives (in the sense of whenever), and have the constructions of Protasis (cf. § 514):
 - cum id malum negās esse, capior (Tusc. ii. 29), whenever you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil, I am misled. [Present general condition.]
 - quod profecto cum me nulla vis cogeret, facere non auderem (Phil. v. 51), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. § 517.]
 - cum videās eos dolore non frangī, dēbeās exīstimāre, etc. (Tusc. ii. 66), when you see that those are not broken by pain, you ought to infer, etc. [Present general condition: cf. § 518. a.]
 - cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw a rose he thought spring had begun. [Past general condition: cf. § 518. b.]
 - id ubi dīxisset, hastam in fīnīs eōrum ēmittēbat (Liv. i. 32. 13), when he had said this, he would cast the spear into their territories. [Past General Condition, repeated action: see § 518. c.]
- ¹ With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses, § 591.)

Temporal Clauses with postquam, ubi, etc.

- 543. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut prīmum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac, or simul alone), take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present):
 - milites postquam victoriam adepti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fecere (Sall. Cat. 11), when the soldiers had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.
 - posteāquam forum attigistī, nihil fēcistī nisi, etc. (Fam. xv. 16. 3), since you came to the forum, you have done nothing except, etc.
 - ubi omnīs idem sentīre intellēxit, posterum diem pūgnae constituit (B. G. iii. 23), when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing), he appointed the next day for the battle.
 - Catilina, ubi eos convenisse videt, secedit (Sall. Cat. 20), when Catiline sees that they have come together, he retires.
 - Pompêius ut equitatum suum pulsum vidit, acië excessit (B. C. iii. 94), when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the field.
 - ut semel è Piraceò eloquentia evecta est (Brut. 51), as soon as eloquence had set sail from the Piræus.
 - nostrī simul in āridō constiterunt, in hostīs impetum fecerunt (B. G. iv. 26), our men, as soon as they had taken a position on dry ground, made an attack on the enemy.
 - simul atque introductus est, rem confecit (Clu. 40), as soon as he was brought in, he did the job.
- a. These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative. The Imperfect denotes a past state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time:
 - postquam structi utrimque stabant, duces in medium procedunt (Liv. i. 23), when they stood in array on both sides, the generals advance into the midst.
 - P. Āfricānus posteāquam bis consul et censor fuerat (Caecil. 69), when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.
 - postquam id difficilius visum est, neque facultās perficiendī dabātur, ad Pompeium trānsiērunt (B. C. iii. 60), when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey.
 - post diem quintum quam iterum barbari male pūgnāverant [= victī sunt], lēgātī ā Bocchō veniunt (Iug. 102), the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys come from Bocchus.
 - haec iuventūtem, ubi familiārēs opēs dēfēcerant, ad facinora incendēbant (Sall. Cat. 13), when their inherited resources had given out, etc.
 - ubi pericula virtūte propulerant (id. 6), when they had dispelled the dangers by their valor.

For the use of ubi, ut, either alone or compounded with cumque, as Indefinite Relatives, see § 542.

Uses of Cum

544. The conjunction cum (quom) is a case-form of the relative pronoun quī. It inherits from quī its subordinating force, and in general shares its constructions. But it was early specialized to a temporal meaning (cf. tum, dum), and its range of usage was therefore less wide than that of quī; it could not, for example, introduce clauses of purpose or of result.

With the Indicative, besides the simple expression of definite time (corresponding to simple relative clauses with the Indicative), it has a few special uses,—conditional,

explicative, cum inversum — all easily derived from the temporal use.

With the Subjunctive, cum had a development parallel to that of the qui-clause of Characteristic,—a development not less extensive and equally peculiar to Latin. From defining the time the cum-clause passed over to the description of the time by means of its attendant circumstances of cause or concession (cf. since, while).

In particular, cum with the Subjunctive was used in narrative (hence the past tenses, Imperfect and Pluperfect) as a descriptive clause of time. As, however, the present participle in Latin is restricted in its use and the perfect active participle is almost wholly lacking, the historical or narrative cum-clause came into extensive use to supply the deficiency. In classical writers the narrative cum-clause (with the Subjunctive) has pushed back the defining clause (with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative) into comparative infrequency, and is itself freely used where the descriptive or characterizing force is scarcely perceptible (cf. the qui-clause of Characteristic, § 534).

Csem Temporal

- 545. A temporal clause with cum, when, and some past tense of the Indicative dates or defines the time at which the action of the main verb occurred:
 - eō [lituō] regionēs dīrēxit tum cum urbem condidit (Div. i. 30), he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time he founded the city.
 - cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibidem fuerunt servi (Rosc. Am. 120), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot. [occiditur is historical present.]
 - quem quidem cum ex urbe pellēbam, hōc prōvidēbam animō (Cat. iii. 16). when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.
 - fulgentis gladios hostium videbant Decii cum in aciem eorum inruebant (Tusc. ii. 59), the Decii saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.
 - tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant (Manil. 19), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.
- Note 1.—This is the regular use with all tenses in early Latin, and at all times with the Perfect and the Historical Present (as with postquam etc.). With the Imperfect and Pluperfect the Indicative use is (in classical Latin) much less common than the Subjunctive use defined below (§ 546).
- NOTE 2. This construction must not be confused with that of cum, whenever, in General Conditions (§ 542).

- a. When the time of the main clause and that of the temporal clause are absolutely identical, cum takes the Indicative in the same tense as that of the main verb:
 - maximā sum laetitiā adfectus cum audīvī consulem tē factum esse (Fam. xv. 7), I was very much pleased when I heard that you had been elected consul.
- 546. A temporal clause with cum and the Imperfect or Pluper-fect Subjunctive describes the circumstances that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb:
 - cum essem ötiösus in Tusculāno, accēpī tuās litterās (Fam. ix. 18. 1), when I was taking my ease in my house at Tusculum, I received your letter.
 - cum servili bello premeretur (Manil. 30), when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.
 - cum id nüntiätum esset, mätürat (B. G. i. 7), when this had been reported, he made (makes) haste.
 - cum ad Cybistra quinque dies essem moratus, regem Ariobarzanem insidiis liberavi (Fam. xv. 4. 6), after remaining at Cybistra for five days, I freed King Ariobarzanes from plots.
 - is cum ad me Laodiceam venisset mecumque ego eum vellem, repente percussus est atrocissimis litteris (id. ix. 25. 3), when he had come to me at Laodicea and I wished him to remain with me, he was suddenly, etc.
- Note 1. This construction is very common in narrative, and cum in this use is often called narrative cum.
- NOTE 2.— Cum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative does not (like cum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive) describe the time by its circumstances; it defines the time of the main verb by denoting a coëxistent state of things (Imperfect Indicative) or a result attained when the action of the main verb took place (Pluperfect). Thus the construction is precisely that of postquam etc. (§ 543. a).
- Note 3.—The distinction between the uses defined in §§ 545, 546, may be illustrated by the following examples: (1) He had a fever when he was in Spain (Shakspere). Here the when-clause defines the time when Cæsar had the fever, —namely, in the year of his Spanish campaign (B.C. 49). In Latin we should use cum with the Imperfect Indicative. (2) Columbus discovered America when he was seeking a new route to India; here the when-clause does not define or date the time of the discovery; it merely describes the circumstances under which America was discovered,—namely, in the course of a voyage undertaken for another purpose. In Latin we should use the Imperfect Subjunctive.
- Note 4.—The distinction explained in Note 3 is unknown to early Latin. In Plautus quom always has the Indicative unless the Subjunctive is required for some other reason.
- a. When the principal action is expressed in the form of a temporal clause with cum, and the definition of the time becomes the main clause, cum takes the Indicative.

Here the logical relations of the two clauses are inverted; hence cum is in this use called cum inversum:—

- dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius infans necatur (Clu. 28), ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed. [Instead of when ten days had not yet passed, etc.]
- iamque lux apparebat cum procedit ad milites (Q. C. vii. 8. 3), and day was already dawning when he appears before the soldiers.
- hoc facere noctu apparabant, cum matres familiae repente in publicum procurrerunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.
- 547. Present time with cum temporal is denoted by the Present Indicative; future time, by the Future or Future Perfect Indicative:
 - incidunt tempora, cum ea, quae maxime videntur digna esse iusto homine, fiunt contraria (Off. i. 31), times occur when those things which seem especially worthy of the upright man, become the opposite.
 - non dubitabo dare operam ut të videam, cum id satis commode facere potero (Fam. xiii. 1), I shall not hesitate to take pains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.
 - longum illud tempus cum non ero (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.
 - cum vēneris, cognoscēs (Fam. v. 7. 3), when you come (shall have come), you will find out.
- 548. Cum, whenever, takes the construction of a relative clause in a general condition (see § 542).

For present time, either the Present or the Perfect Indicative is used; for past time, regularly the Pluperfect Indicative.

For est cum etc., see § 535. a. n. 8.

Cum Causal or Concessive

- 549. Cum causal or concessive takes the Subjunctive:
 - id difficile non est, cum tantum equitatū valeamus (B. C. iii. 86), this is not difficult since we are so strong in cavalry. [Causal.]
 - cum solitudo insidiarum et metus plena sit, ratio ipsa monet amicitias comparare (Fin. i. 66), since solitude is full of treachery and fear, reason itself prompts us to contract friendships. [Causal.]
 - cum prīmī ōrdinēs concidissent, tamen ācerrimē reliquī resistēbant (B. G. vii. 62), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously. [Concessive.]
 - brevī spatio legionēs numero hominum explēverat, cum initio non amplius duobus mīlibus habuisset (Sall. Cat. 56), in a short time he had filled out the legions with their complement of men, though at the start he had not had more than two thousand. [Concessive.]

Cum causal may usually be translated by since; cum concessive by although or while; either, occasionally, by when.

Note 1.—Cum in these uses is often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim: as,—nec reprehendo: quippe cum ipse istam reprehensionem non fugerim (Att. x. 3A), I find no fault; since I myself did not escape that blame.

NOTE 2.—These causal and concessive uses of cum are of relative origin and are parallel to qui causal and concessive (§535. e). The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it.

Note 3. — In early Latin cum (quom) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative: as, — quom tua res distrahitur, utinam videam (Pl. Trin. 617), since your property is being torn in pieces, O that I may see, etc.

- a. Cum with the Indicative frequently introduces an explanatory statement, and is sometimes equivalent to quod, on the ground that:
 - cum tacent, clamant (Cat. i. 21), when they are silent, they cry out (i.e. their silence is an emphatic expression of their sentiments).
 - grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam (Fam. ix. 14. 3), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.

Note.—This is merely a special use of cum temporal expressing coincident time (\S 545. a).

- **b.** Cum...tum, signifying both... and, usually takes the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, the Subjunctive is used (§ 549):
 - cum multa non probo, tum illud in primis (Fin. i. 18), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. [Indicative.]
 - cum difficile est, tum në aequum quidem (Lael. 26), not only is it difficult but even unjust.
 - cum res tota ficta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (Fin. i. 19), while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes). [Subjunctive; approaching cum causal.]

Antequam and Priusquam

- 550. Antequam and priusquam, before, introduce Clauses of Time which resemble those with cum temporal in their constructions. Priusquam consists of two parts (often written separately and sometimes separated by other words), the comparative adverb prius, sooner (before), which really modifies the main verb, and the relative particle quam, than, which introduces the subordinate clause. The latter is therefore a relative clause, and takes the Indicative or the Subjunctive (like other relative clauses) according to the sense intended. The Subjunctive with priusquam is related to that of purpose (§ 529) and is sometimes called the Anticipatory or Prospective Subjunctive. Antequam, like priusquam, consists of two words, the first of which is the adverb ante, before, modifying the main verb. Its constructions are the same as those of priusquam, but the latter is commoner in classic prose.
- 551. Antequam and priusquam take sometimes the Indicative sometimes the Subjunctive.

- a. With antequam or priusquam the Perfect Indicative states a fact in past time:
 - antequam tuās lēgi litterās, hominem īre cupiēbam (Att. ii. 7. 2), before I read your letter, I wished the man to go.
 - neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit adulescens (Liv. xxxix. 10), and she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.
 - neque prius fugere destiterunt quam ad flumen pervenerunt (B. G. i. 53), nor did they stop running until they reached the river.
- Note.—The Perfect Indicative in this construction is regular when the main clause is negative and the main verb is in an historical tense. The Imperfect Indicative is rare; the Pluperfect Indicative, very rare. The Perfect Subjunctive is rare and ante-classical, except in Indirect Discourse.
- b. With antequam or priusquam the Imperfect Subjunctive is common when the subordinate verb implies purpose or expectancy in past time, or when the action that it denotes did not take place:
 - ante pügnārī coeptum est quam satis înstruerētur acies (Liv. xxii. 4. 7), the fight was begun before the line could be properly formed.
 - priusquam tū suum sibi vēnderēs, ipse possēdit (Phil. ii. 96), before you could sell him his own property, he took possession of it himself.
 - priusquam telum abici posset aut nostri propius accederent, omnis Vārī acies terga vertit (B. C. ii. 34), before a weapon could be thrown or our men approached nearer, the whole line about Varus took flight.
- Note 1.—The Pluperfect Subjunctive is rare, except in Indirect Discourse by sequence of tenses for the Future Perfect Indicative (§ 484. c): as,—antequam homines nefarii de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi (Planc. 98), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.
- Note 2.— After an historical present the Present Subjunctive is used instead of the Imperfect: as,—neque ab eō prius Domitiānī mīlitēs discēdunt quam in conspectum Caesaris dēdūcātur (B. C. i. 22), and the soldiers of Domitius did (do) not leave him until he was (is) conducted into Cæsar's presence. So, rarely, the Perfect Subjunctive (as B. G. iii. 18).
- c. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive:
 - priusquam de ceteris rebus respondeo, de amicitia pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 3), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little about friendship.
 - non defatīgābor antequam illorum ancipitēs viās percēpero (De Or. iii. 145), I shall not weary till I have traced out their doubtful ways.
 - antequam veniat litterās mittet (Leg. Agr. ii. 53), before he comes, he will send a letter.
 - Note 1. The Future Indicative is very rare.
- NOTE 2.— In a few cases the Subjunctive of present general condition is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. § 518. a): as,—in omnibus negotiis priusquam aggrediam, adhibenda est praeparatio diligens (Off. i. 73), in all undertakings, before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.

Dum, Donec, and Quoad

- 552. As an adverb meaning for a time, awhile, dum is found in old Latin, chiefly as an enclitic (cf. vixdum, nondum). Its use as a conjunction comes either through correlation (cf. cum...tum, si...sic) or through substitution for a conjunction, as in the English the moment I saw it, I understood. Quoad is a compound of the relative quō, up to which point, with ad. The origin and early history of done are unknown.
- 553. Dum and quoed, until, take the Present or Imperfect Subjunctive in temporal clauses implying intention or expectancy:
 - exspectās fortasse dum dīcat (Tusc. ii. 17), you are waiting perhaps for him to say (until he say). [Dum is especially common after exspectō.]
 - dum reliquae naves convenirent, ad horam nonam exspectavit (B. G. iv. 23), he waited till the ninth hour for the rest of the ships to join him.
 - comitia dilăta [sunt] dum lex ferretur (Att. iv. 17. 3), the election was postponed until a law should be passed.
 - an id exspectāmus, quoad ne vestīgium quidem Asiae cīvitātum atque urbium relinquātur (Phil. xi. 25), shall we wait for this until not a trace is left of the states and cities of Asia?
 - Epaminondas exercebatur plūrimum luctando ad eum finem quoad stans complecti posset atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), Epaminondas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able (until he should be able) to grapple standing and fight (in that way).
- Note 1.—Donec is similarly used in poetry and later Latin: as,—et duxit longe donec curvata corrent inter se capita (Aen. xi. 860), and drew it (the bow) until the curved tips touched each other.
- NOTE 2.—Dum, until, may be used with the Present or Future Perfect Indicative to state a future fact when there is no idea of intention or expectancy; but this construction is rare in classic prose. The Future is also found in early Latin. Donec, until, is similarly used, in poetry and early Latin, with the Present and Future Perfect Indicative, rarely with the Future:
 - ego in Arcano opperior dum ista cognosco (Att. x. 3), I am waiting in the villa at Arcæ until I find this out. [This is really dum, while.]
 - mihi ūsque cūrae erit quid agās, dum quid ēgeris sciero (Fam. xii. 19. 3), I shall always feel anxious as to what you are doing, until I actually know (shall have known) what you have done.
 - delicta maiorum lues donec templa refeceris (Hor. Od. iii. 6. 1), you shall suffer for the sins of your ancestors until you rebuild the temples.
 - ter centum rēgnābitur annos, donec geminam partū dabit Īlia prolem (Aen. i. 272), sway shall be held for thrice a hundred years, until Ilia shall give birth to twin offspring.
- 554. Donec and quoad, until, with the Perfect Indicative denote an actual fact in past time:
 - donec redit silentium fuit (Liv. xxiii. 31. 9), there was silence until he returned. ūsque eo timui donec ad reiciendos iūdices venimus (Verr. ii. 1. 17), I was anxious until the moment when we came to challenge the jurors.
 - Romae fuerunt quoad L. Metellus in provinciam profectus est (id. ii. 62), they remained at Rome until Lucius Metellus set out for the province.

- Note.—Dum, until, with the Perfect Indicative is rare: as, mansit in condicione usque ad eum finem dum iudices rejecti sunt (Verr. i. 16), he remained true to the agreement until the jurors were challenged.
 - 555. Dum, donec, and quoad, as long as, take the Indicative:
 - dum anima est, spēs esse dicitur (Att. ix. 10. 3), as long as there is life, there is said to be hope.
 - dum praesidia ülla fuerunt, in Sullae praesidiis fuit (Rosc. Am. 126), so long as there were any garrisons, he was in the garrisons of Sulla.
 - dum longius ā mūnītione aberant Gallī, plūs multitūdine telorum proficiebant (B. G. vii. 82), so long as the Gauls were at a distance from the fortifications, they had the advantage because of their missiles.
 - donec grātus eram tibī, Persārum viguī rēge beātior (Hor. Od. iii. 9. 1), as long as I enjoyed thy favor, I flourished happier than the king of the Persians.
 - quoad potuit fortissime restitit (B. G. iv. 12), he resisted bravely as long as he could.
 - Note 1. Donec in this use is confined to poetry and later writers.
- Note 2. Quam diū, as long as, takes the Indicative only: as, sē oppido tam diū tenuit quam diū in provinciā Parthī fuērunt (Fam. xii. 19. 2), he kept himself within the town as long as the Parthians were in the province.
- 556. Dum, while, regularly takes the Present Indicative to denote continued action in past time.
 - In translating, the English Imperfect must generally be used:
 - dum haec geruntur, Caesari nüntiätum est (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on, a message was brought to Cæsar.
 - haec dum aguntur, intereā Cleomenēs iam ad Elōrī lītus pervēnerat (Verr. v. 91), while this was going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Elorum.
 - hoc dum narrat, forte audivi (Ter. Haut. 272), I happened to hear this while she was telling it.
 - Note. This construction is a special use of the Historical Present (§ 469).
- a. A past tense with dum (usually so long as) makes the time emphatic by contrast; but a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where no contrast is intended:
 - nec enim dum eram vöbīscum, animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. M. 79), for while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]
 - coörta est pügna, pār dum constabant ordines (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.
 - But,—dum oculos hostium certamen averterat (id. xxxii. 24), while the struggle kept the eyes of the enemy turned away.
 - dum unum adscendere gradum conatus est, venit in periculum (Mur. 55), while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.

- NOTE. In later writers, dum sometimes takes the Subjunctive when the classical usage would require the Indicative, and donec, until, is freely used in this manner (especially by Tacitus):
 - dum ea in Samniō gererentur, in Etruriā interim bellum ingēns concītur (Liv. x. 18), while this was being done in Samnium, meanwhile a great war was stirred up in Etruria.
 - illa quidem dum te fugeret, hydrum non vidit (Georg. iv. 457), while she was fleeing from you she did not see the serpent.
 - dum per vicos deportaretur, condormiebat (Suet. Aug. 78), while he was being carried through the streets he used to fall dead asleep.
 - Rhēnus servat nomen et violentiam cursus (quā Germāniam praevehitur) donec Oceano misceātur (Tac. Ann. ii. 6), the Rhine keeps its name and rapid course (where it borders Germany) until it mingles with the ocean.
 - temporibusque Augustī dīcendīs non dēfuēre decora ingenia donec glīscente adūlātione dēterrērentur (id. i. 1), for describing the times of Augustus there was no lack of talent until it was frightened away by the increasing servility of the age.

For dum, provided that, see § 528.

CLAUSES WITH QUIN AND QUOMINUS

557. The original meaning of quin is how not? why not? (qui-nē), and when used with the Indicative or (rarely) with the Subjunctive it regularly implies a general negative. Thus, quin ego hoc rogem? why should n't I ask this? implies that there is no reason for not asking. The implied negative was then expressed in a main clause, like nulla causa est or fieri non potest. Hence come the various dependent constructions introduced by quin.

Quōminus is really a phrase (quō minus), and the dependent constructions which it introduces have their origin in the relative clause of purpose with quō and a comparative (see § 531. a).

- 558. A subjunctive clause with quin is used after verbs and other expressions of hindering, resisting, refusing, doubting, delaying, and the like, when these are negatived, either expressly or by implication:
 - non hūmāna ūlla neque dīvīna obstant quīn socios amīcos trahant exscindant (Sall. Ep. Mith. 17), no human or divine laws prevent them from taking captive and exterminating their friendly allies.
 - ut në Suessionës quidem deterrere potuerint quin cum his consentirent (B. G. ii. 3), that they were unable to hinder even the Suessiones from making common cause with them.
 - non posse milites contineri quin in urbem inrumperent (B. C. ii. 12), that the soldiers could not be restrained from bursting into the city.
 - non recusat quin iudices (Deiot. 43), he does not object to your judging.
 - neque recusare quin armis contendant (B. G. iv. 7), and that they did not refuse to fight.
 - praeterire non potui quin scriberem ad të (Caesar ap. Cic. Att. ix. 6 A), I could not neglect to write to you.

- Treveri totius hiemis nüllum tempus intermiserunt quin legatos mitterent (B. G. v. 55), the Treveri let no part of the winter pass without sending ambassadors. [Cf. B. G. v. 53; B. C. i. 78.]
- non cunctandum existimāvit quin pugnā dēcertāret (B. G. iii. 28), he thought he ought not to delay risking a decisive battle.
- paulum āfuit quīn Vārum interficeret (B. C. ii. 35), he just missed killing Varus (it lacked little but that he should kill).
- neque multum āfuit quin castris expellerentur (id. ii. 35), they came near being driven out of the camp.
- facere non possum quin cotidie ad të mittam (Att. xii. 27. 2), I cannot help sending to you every day.
- fieri nüllö modo poterat quin Cleomeni parceretur (Verr. v. 104), it was out of the question that Cleomenes should not be spared.
- ut effici non possit quin eos oderim (Phil. xi. 36), so that nothing can prevent my hating them.
- a. Quin is especially common with non dubito, 1 do not doubt, non est dubium, there is no doubt, and similar expressions:
 - non dubitabat quin el crederemus (Att. vi. 2. 3), he did not doubt that we believed him.
 - illud cavē dubitēs quin ego omnia faciam (Fam. v. 20. 6), do not doubt that I will do all.
 - quis Ignorat quin tria Graecorum genera sint (Flacc. 64), who is ignorant that there are three races of Greeks?
 - non erat dubium quin Helvētii plūrimum possent (cf. B. G. i. 3), there was no doubt that the Helvetians were most powerful.
 - neque Caesarem fefellit quin ab iis cohortibus initium victoriae oriretur (B. C. iii. 94), and it did not escape Cæsar's notice that the beginning of the victory came from those cohorts.
- Note 1. Dubitō without a negative is regularly followed by an Indirect Question; so sometimes non dubitō and the like:
 - non nulli dubitant an per Sardiniam veniat (Fam. ix. 7), some doubt whether he is coming through Sardinia.
 - dubitāte, sī potestis, ā quō sit Sex. Rōscius occīsus (Rosc. Am. 78), doubt, if you can, by whom Sextus Roscius was murdered.
 - dubitābam tū hās ipsās litterās essēsne acceptūrus (Att. xv. 9), I doubt whether you will receive this very letter. [Epistolary Imperfect (§ 479).]
 - quālis sit futūrus, nē vos quidem dubitātis (B. C. ii. 32), and what it (the outcome) will be, you yourselves do not doubt.
 - non dubito quid sentiant (Fam. xv. 9), I do not doubt what they think.
 - dubium illī non erat quid futūrum esset (id. viii. 8. 1), it was not doubtful to him what was going to happen.
- Note 2.—Non dubito in the sense of *I* do not hesitate commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quin with the Subjunctive:
 - nec dubitāre illum appellāre sapientem (Lael. 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage. dubitandum non existimāvit quīn proficiscerētur (B. G. ii. 2), he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.
 - quid dubitas uti temporis opportunitate (B. C. ii. 34), why do you hesitate to take advantage of the favorable moment? [A question implying a negative.]

- b. Verbs of hindering and refusing often take the subjunctive with ne or quominus (= ut eo minus), especially when the verb is not negatived:
 - plura në dicam tuae më lacrimae impediunt (Planc. 104), your tears prevent me from speaking further.
 - nec aetās impedit quominus agrī colendī studia teneāmus (Cat. M. 60), nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the soil.
 - nihil impedit quominus id facere possimus (Fin. i. 83), nothing hinders us from being able to do that.
 - obstitisti në transire copiae possent (Verr. v. 5), you opposed the passage of the troops (opposed lest the troops should cross).
 - NOTE. Some verbs of hindering may take the Infinitive:—
 nihil obest dicere (Fam. ix. 13. 4), there is nothing to prevent my saying it.
 prohibet accedere (Caec. 46), prevents him from approaching.
- 559. A clause of Result or Characteristic may be introduced by quin after a general negative, where quin is equivalent to qui (quae, quod) non:—
 - 1. Clauses of Result:
 - nëmë est tam fortis quin [= qui nën] rei novitate perturbëtur (B. G. vi. 39), no one is so brave as not to be disturbed by the unexpected occurrence.
 - nemo erat adeo tardus quin putaret (B. C. i. 69), no one was so slothful as not to think, etc.
 - quis est tam demens quin sentiat (Balb. 43), who is so senseless as not to think, etc.?
 - nīl tam difficilest quin quaerendō investīgārī possiet (Ter. Haut. 675), nothing's so hard but search will find it out (Herrick).
 - 2. Clauses of Characteristic:
 - nēmo nostrum est quin [= qui non] sciat (Rosc. Am. 55), there is no one of us who does not know.
 - nēmō fuit mīlitum quīn vulnerārētur (B. C. iii. 53), there was not one of the soldiers who was not wounded.
 - ecquis fuit quin lacrimaret (Verr. v. 121), was there any one who did not shed tears?
 - quis est quin intellegat (Fin. v. 64), who is there who does not understand?

 hōrum nihil est quin [= quod nōn] interest (N. D. iii. 80), there is none of these (elements) which does not perish.
 - nihil est illörum quin [= quod nön] ego illi dixerim (Pl. Bac. 1012), there is nothing of this that I have not told him.

NOTE. — Quin sometimes introduces a pure clause of result with the sense of ut non: as, — numquam tam male est Siculis quin aliquid facētē et commodē dicant (Verr. iv. 95), things are never so bad with the Sicilians but that they have something pleasant or witty to say.

For quin in independent constructions, see § 449. b.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

560. A clause which is used as a noun may be called a Substantive Clause, as certain relative clauses are sometimes called adjective clauses. But in practice the term is restricted to clauses which represent a nominative or an accusative case, the clauses which stand for an ablative being sometimes called adverbial clauses.

Even with this limitation the term is not quite precise (see p. 367, footnote 1). The fact is rather that the clause and the leading verb are mutually complementary; each reinforces the other. The simplest and probably the earliest form of such sentences is to be found in the paratactic use (see § 268) of two verbs like volo abeas, dicāmus cēnseo, adeam optimum est. From such verbs the usage spread by analogy to other verbs (see lists on pp. 363, 367, footnotes), and the complementary relation of the clause to the verb came to resemble the complementary force of the accusative, especially the accusative of cognate meaning (§ 390).

- 561. A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.
- a. A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive, or as a Predicate Nominative or Accusative.
- Note 1.— Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, he demanded an investigation may be postulabat ut quaestio haberetur. The common English expression for with the infinitive also corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as,—it remains for me to speak of the piratic war, reliquum est ut de bello dicam piratico.

NOTE 2. — When a Substantive Clause is used as subject, the verb to which it is subject is called *impersonal*, and the sign of the construction in English is commonly the so-called *expletive* IT.

562. Substantive Clauses are classified as follows:—

- 1. Subjunctive Clauses { a. Of purpose (command, wish, fear) (§§ 563, 564). (ut, nē, ut non, etc.). } b. Of result (happen, effect, etc.) (§ 568).
- 2. Indicative Clauses with quod: Fact, Specification, Feeling (§ 572).
- 3. Indirect Questions: Subjunctive, introduced by an Interrogative Word (§§ 573-576).
- 4. Infinitive Clauses { a. With verbs of ordering, wishing, etc. (§ 563). b. Indirect Discourse (§ 579 ff.).

Note. — The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is not strictly a clause, but in Latin it has undergone so extensive a development that it may be so classed. The uses of the Infinitive Clause are of two kinds: (1) in constructions in which it replaces a subjunctive clause with ut etc.; (2) in the Indirect Discourse. The first class will be discussed in connection with the appropriate subjunctive constructions (§ 563); for Indirect Discourse, see § 579 ff.

Substantive Clauses of Purpose

563. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative ne) are used as the object of verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.

Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish:—1

monet ut omnēs suspīcionēs vitet (B. G. i. 20), he warns him to avoid all suspicion.

hortātur eðs në animo deficiant (B. C. i. 19), he urges them not to lose heart. të rogo atque oro ut eum iuves (Fam. xiii. 66), I beg and pray you to aid him. his utī conquirerent imperavit (B. G. i. 28), he ordered them to search.

persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet (id. i. 3), he persuades Casticus to usurp royal power.

suis imperavit ne quod omnino telum reicerent (id. i. 46), he ordered his men not to throw back any weapon at all.

Note. — With any verb of these classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of an object clause: —

hortamur fari (Aen. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak.

nē quaere docērī (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told.

temptat praevertere (id. i. 721), she attempts to turn, etc.

For the Subjunctive without ut with verbs of commanding, see § 565. a.

- a. Iubeo, order, and veto, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative:—
 - Labiënum iugum montis ascendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.
 - līberōs ad sē addūcī iussit (id. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought to him. ab opere lēgātōs discēdere vetuerat (id. ii. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.
 - vetuēre [bona] reddī (Liv. ii. 5), they forbade the return of the goods (that the goods be returned).
 - Note. Some other verbs of commanding etc. occasionally take the Infinitive:—
 pontem imperant flerī (B. C. i. 61), they order a bridge to be built.
 rēs monet cavēre (Sall. Cat. 52. 3), the occasion warns us to be on our guard.
- With volo (nolo, malo) and cupio the Infinitive or the Subjunctive. With volo (nolo, malo) and cupio the Infinitive is commoner, and the subject of the infinitive is rarely expressed when it would be the same as that of the main verb.

With other verbs of wishing the Subjunctive is commoner when the subject changes, the Infinitive when it remains the same.

- 1. Subject of dependent verb same as that of the verb of wishing:—
 augur fierī voluī (Fam. xv. 4. 13), I wished to be made augur.
 cupiō vigiliam meam tibi trādere (id. xi. 24), I am eager to hand over my watch to you.
- 1 Such verbs or verbal phrases are id ago, ad id venio, caveo (nē), cēnseo, cogo, concēdo, constituo, cūro, dēcerno, ēdīco, flāgito, hortor, impero, însto, mando, metuo (nē), moneo, negotium do, operam do, oro, persuādeo, peto, postulo, praecipio, precor, pronūntio, quaero, rogo, scīsco, timeo (nē), vereor (nē), video, volo.

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- iūdicem mē esse, non doctorem volo (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.
- mē Caesaris mīlitem dīcī voluī (B. C. ii. 32. 13), I wished to be called a soldier of Cæsar.
- cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4), I desire to be merciful. [But regularly, cupiō esse clēmēns (see § 457).]
- omnis homines, qui sese student praestare ceteris animalibus (Sall. Cat. 1), all men who wish to excel other living creatures.
- 2. Subject of dependent verb different from that of the verb of wishing: volo to scire (Fam. ix. 24. 1), I wish you to know.

vim volumus exstingui (Sest. 92), we wish violence to be put down.

- tē tuā fruī virtūte cupimus (Brut. 331), we wish you to reap the fruits of your virtue.
- cupio ut impetret (Pl. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.
- numquam optābō ut audiātis (Cat. ii. 15), I will never desire that you shall hear.

For volo and its compounds with the Subjunctive without ut, see § 565.

- c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Patior takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often sinō:
 - permisit ut faceret (De Or. ii. 366), permitted him to make.
 - concēdō tibi ut ea praetereās (Rosc. Am. 54), I allow you to pass by these matters.
 - tabernācula statuī passus non est (B. C. i. 81), he did not allow tents to be pitched.
 - vinum importari non sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.
- d. Verbs of determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining, take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive:
 - constituerant ut L. Bestia quereretur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.
 - proelio supersedere statuit (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.
 - dē bonīs rēgis quae reddī cēnsuerant (Liv. ii. 5), about the king's goods, which they had decreed should be restored.
 - dēcernit utī consules dilectum habeant (Sall. Cat. 34), decrees that the consuls shall hold a levy.
 - ēdictō nē quis iniussū pūgnāret (Liv. v. 19), having commanded that none should fight without orders.
- Note 1.—Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction (see the Lexicon). For verbs of bargaining etc. with the Gerundive, see § 500. 4.
- Note 2.—Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation:—Rēgulus captīvos reddendos [esse] non cēnsuit (Off. i. 39), Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captīvī non reddendī sunt.]

- e. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut. But conor, try, commonly takes the Complementary Infinitive:
 - cūrā ut quam primum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10. 4), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).
 - dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).
 - impellere uti Caesar nominaretur (id. 49), to induce them to name Cæsar (that Cæsar should be named).
 - conatus est Caesar reficere pontis (B. C. i. 50), Cæsar tried to rebuild the bridges.
 - Note 1. Conor sī also occurs (as B. G. i. 8); cf. mīror sī etc., § 572. b. n.
- Note 2. Ut no occurs occasionally with verbs of caution and effort (cf. § 531): cūrā et provide ut noquid ei desit (Att. xi. 3. 3), take care and see that he lacks nothing. For the Subjunctive with quin and quominus with verbs of hindering etc., see § 558.
- 564. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with ne affirmative and ne non or ut negative.

In this use ne is commonly to be translated by that, ut and ne non by that not:—

- timeo ne Verres fecerit (Verr. v. 3), I fear that Verres has done, etc.
- nē animum offenderet verēbātur (B. G. i. 19), he feared that he should hurt the feelings, etc.
- në exhërëdarëtur veritus est (Rosc. Am. 58), he feared that he should be disinherited.
- orator metuo ne languescat senectute (Cat. M. 28), I fear the orator grows feeble from old age.
- vereor ut tibi possim concēdere (De Or. i. 35), I fear that I cannot grant you. haud sānē perīculum est nē non mortem optandam putet (Tusc. v. 118), there is no danger that he will not think death desirable.
- Note.—The subjunctive in ne-clauses after a verb of fearing is optative in origin. To an independent ne-sentence, as ne accidat, may it not happen, a verb may be prefixed (cf. § 560), making a complex sentence. Thus, vide ne accidat; oro ne accidat; cavet ne accidat; when the prefixed verb is one of fearing, timeo ne accidat becomes let it not happen, but I fear that it may. The origin of the ut-clause is similar.
- 565. Volo and its compounds, the impersonals licet and oportet, and the imperatives dic and fac often take the Subjunctive without ut:—

volo ames (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love.

quam vellem mē invītāssēs (Fam. x. 28. 1), how I wish you had invited me! māllem Cerberum metuerēs (Tusc. i. 12), I had rather you feared Cerberus. sint enim oportet (id. i. 12), for they must exist.

querāmur licet (Caec. 41), we are allowed to complain.

fac diligas (Att. iii. 13. 2), do love! [A periphrasis for the imperative dilige, love (cf. § 449. c).]

dic exeat, tell him to go out.

- NOTE 1.—In such cases there is no ellipsis of ut. The expressions are idiomatic remnants of an older construction in which the subjunctives were hortatory or optative and thus really independent of the verb of wishing etc. In the classical period, however, they were doubtless felt as subordinate. Compare the use of cave and the subjunctive (without ne) in Prohibitions (§ 450), which appears to follow the analogy of fac.
- NOTE 2.—Licet may take (1) the Subjunctive, usually without ut; (2) the simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; (4) the Dative and the Infinitive (see § 455. 1). Thus, *I may go* is licet eam, licet īre, licet mē īre, or licet mihi īre.

For licet in concessive clauses, see § 527. b.

- Note 3. Oportet may take (1) the Subjunctive without ut; (2) the simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. Thus I must go is oportet eam, oportet ire, or oportet me ire.
- a. Verbs of commanding and the like often take the subjunctive without ut:—

huic mandat Rēmōs adeat (B. G. iii. 11), he orders him to visit the Remi. rogat finem faciat (id. i. 20), he asks him to cease.

Mnësthea vocat, classem aptent socii (Aen. iv. 289), he calls Mnestheus [and orders that] his comrades shall make ready the fleet.

Note. — The subjunctive in this construction is the hortatory subjunctive used to express a command in Indirect Discourse (§ 588).

Substantive Clauses of Purpose with Passive Verbs

- 566. A Substantive Clause used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when the verb is put in the passive (Impersonal Construction):—
 - Caesar ut cognosceret postulatum est (B. C. i. 87), Cæsar was requested to make an investigation (it was requested that Cæsar should make an investigation).
 - sī erat Hēracliō ab senātū mandātum ut emeret (Verr. iii. 88), if Heraclius had been instructed by the senate to buy.
 - sī persuāsum erat Cluviō ut mentīrētur (Rosc. Com. 51), if Cluvius had been persuaded to lie.
 - puto concedi nobis oportere ut Graeco verbo ütamur (Fin. iii. 15), I think we must be allowed to use a Greek word.
 - në quid eis noceătur a Caesare cavetur (B. C. i. 86), Cæsar takes care that no harm shall be done them (care is taken by Cæsar lest, etc.).
- a. With verbs of admonishing, the personal object becomes the subject and the object clause is retained:
 - admonitī sumus ut cavērēmus (Att. viii. 11 p. 3), we were warned to be careful. cum monērētur ut cautior esset (Div. i. 51), when he was advised to be more cautious.
 - monērī vīsus est nē id faceret (id. 56), he seemed to be warned not to do it.

b. Some verbs that take an infinitive instead of a subjunctive are used impersonally in the passive, and the infinitive becomes the subject of the sentence:—

loqui non conceditur (B. G. vi. 20), it is not allowed to speak.

c. With iubeo, veto, and cogo, the subject accusative of the infinitive becomes the subject nominative of the main verb, and the infinitive is retained as complementary (Personal Construction):—

adesse iubentur postrīdiē (Verr. ii. 41), they are ordered to be present on the following day.

īre in exsilium iussus est (Cat. ii. 12), he was ordered to go into exile.

Simōnidēs vetitus est nāvigāre (Div. ii. 134), Simonides was forbidden to sail. Mandubii exīre cōguntur (B. G. vii. 78), the Mandubii are compelled to go out.

Substantive Clauses of Result (Consecutive Clauses)

- 567. Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of facio etc. (§ 568); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (§ 569); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative etc. (see §§ 570, 571).1
- 568. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut non) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.²

Such are especially facio and its compounds (efficio, conficio, etc.):—

efficiam ut intellegătis (Clu. 7), I will make you understand (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So, faciam ut intellegătis (id. 9).]

commeātūs ut portārī possent efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.

perfēcī ut ē rēgnō ille discēderet (Fam. xv. 4. 6), I brought about his departure from the kingdom.

quae libertās ut lactior esset rēgis superbia fēcerat (Liv. ii. 1), the arrogance of the king had made this liberty more welcome.

Evincunt instando ut litterae darentur (id. ii. 4), by insisting they gain their point, — that letters should be sent. [Here evincunt = efficient.]

¹ In all these cases the clause is not strictly subject or object. The main verb originally conveyed a meaning sufficient in itself, and the result clause was merely complementary. This is seen by the frequent use of ita and the like with the main verb (ita accidit ut, etc.). In like manner purpose clauses are only apparently subject or object of the verb with which they are connected.

² Verbs and phrases taking an ut-clause of result as subject or object are accēdit, accidit, additur, altera est rēs, committō, cōnsequor, contingit, efficiō, ēvenit, faciō, fit, fierī potest, fore, impetrō, integrum est, mōs est, mūnus est, necesse est, prope est, rēctum est, relinquitur, reliquum est, restat, tantī est, tantum abest, and a few others.

- Note 1. The expressions facere ut, committere ut, with the subjunctive, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb: as, invitus fēcī ut Flāminium ē senātū ēicerem (Cat. M. 42), it was with reluctance that I expelled Flaminius from the senate.
- 569. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the subject of the following:—
 - 1. Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort:—
 impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur (litterae) (B. C. i. 1), they succeeded
 in having the letter read in the senate (it was brought about that, etc.).
 ita efficitur ut omne corpus mortāle sit (N. D. iii. 30), it therefore is made
 out that every body is mortal.
- 2. Of Impersonals meaning it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added, and the like (§ 568, footnote):—

accidit ut esset lüna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esset is subject of accidit.]

reliquum est ut officils certemus inter nos (Fam. vii. 31), it remains for us to vie with each other in courtesies.

restat ut hoc dubitemus (Rosc. Am. 88), it is left for us to doubt this. sequitur ut doceam (N. D. ii. 81), the next thing is to show (it follows, etc.).

Note 1.—The infinitive sometimes occurs: as,—nec enim acciderat mihi opus esse (Fam. vi. 11. 1), for it had not happened to be necessary to me.

Note 2.—Necesse est often takes the subjunctive without ut: as,—concēdās necesse est (Rosc. Am. 87), you must grant.

- 3. Of est in the sense of it is the fact that, etc. (mostly poetic):—
 est ut virō vir lātius ōrdinet arbusta (Hor. Od. iii. 1. 9), it is the fact that one
 man plants his vineyards in wider rows than another.
- a. Fore (or futurum esse) ut with a clause of result as subject is often used instead of the Future Infinitive active or passive; so necessarily in verbs which have no supine stem:—

spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs (Tusc. i. 82), I hope that will be our happy lot. cum vidērem fore ut nōn possem (Cat. ii. 4), when I saw that I should not be able.

570. A substantive clause of result may be in apposition with another substantive (especially a neuter pronoun):—

illud etiam restiterat, ut të in iūs ēdūcerent (Quinct. 33), this too remained—for them to drag you into court.

571. A substantive clause of result may serve as predicate nominative after mos est and similar expressions:—

est mos hominum, ut nolint eundem plūribus rebus excellere (Brut. 84), it is the way of men to be unwilling for one man to excel in several things.

- a. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quan after a comparative (but see § 583. c):—
 - Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur veritatem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should). perpessus est omnia potius quam indicaret (Tusc. ii. 52), he endured all rather than betray, etc. [Regularly without ut except in Livy.]
- b. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with ut: one is substantive, the subject of abest; the other is adverbial, correlative with tantum:
 - tantum abest ut nostra mīrēmur, ut ūsque eō difficilēs ac mōrōsī sīmus, ut nōbīs nōn satis faciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Or. 104), so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and captious to that degree that not Demosthenes himself satisfies me. [Here the first ut-clause is the subject of abest (§ 569. 2); the second, a result clause after tantum (§ 537); and the third, after ūsque eō.]
- c. Rarely, a thought or an idea is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive (§ 580). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes:
 - praeclārum illud est, ut ecs... amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.
 - vērī simile non est ut ille anteponeret (Verr. iv. 11), it is not likely that he preferred.

For Relative Clauses with quin after verbs of hindering etc., see § 558.

Indicative with Quod

572. A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consists of quod (in the sense of that, the fact that) with the Indicative.

The clause in the Indicative with quod is used when the statement is regarded as a fact:—

- alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis māgnum studium conferent (Off. i. 19), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut conferent could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly); quod makes it a fact that men do bestow, etc.]
- inter inanimum et animal hōc maximē interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Acad. ii. 37), this is the chief difference between an inanimate object and an animal, that an animal aims at something.
- quod redit nobis mīrābile vidētur (Off. iii. 111), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.
- accidit perincommode quod eum nusquam vidisti (Att. i. 17. 2), it happened very unluckily that you nowhere saw him.

- opportunissima res accidit quod Germani venerunt (B. G. iv. 13), a very fortunate thing happened, (namely) that the Germans came.
- praetereo quod eam sibi domum sedemque delegit (Clu. 188), I pass over the fact that she chose that house and home for herself.
- mitto quod possessa per vim (Flacc. 79), I disregard the fact that they were seized by violence.
- Note. Like other substantive clauses, the clause with quod may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.
- a. A substantive clause with quod sometimes appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English whereas or as to the fact that:
 - quod mihi de nostro statu grātulāris, minime mīrāmur te tuis praeclārīs operibus laetārī (Fam. i. 7. 7), as to your congratulating me on our condition, we are not at all surprised that you are pleased with your own noble works. quod de domo scrībis, ego, etc. (Fam. xiv. 2. 3), as to what you write of the house, I, etc.
- **b.** Verbs of feeling and the expression of feeling take either quod (quia) or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse):
 - quod scrībis . . . gaudeō (Q. Fr. iii. 1. 9), I am glad that you write.
 - facio libenter quod eam non possum praeterire (Legg. i. 63), I am glad that I cannot pass it by.
 - quae perfecta esse vehementer lactor (Rosc. Am. 136), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.
 - qui quia non habuit à me turm as equitum fortasse suscenset (Att. vi. 3. 5), who perhaps feels angry that he did not receive squadrons of cavalry from me.
 - molestē tulī tē senātuī grātiās non ēgisse (Fam. x. 27. 1), I was displeased that you did not return thanks to the senate.
- Note. Miror and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with si.¹ This is apparently substantive, but really protasis (cf. § 563. e. n. ¹). Thus, miror si quemquam amicum habere potuit (Lael. 54), I wonder if he could ever have a friend. [Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]

Indirect Questions

573. An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause which is introduced by an interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), and which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt.

In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative (see the third example below).

- 574. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive:
 - quid ipse sentiam exponam (Div. i. 10), I will explain what I think. [Direct: quid sentio?]
 - id possetne fier consuluit (id. i. 82), he consulted whether it could be done.

 [Direct: potestne?]
 - quam sīs audāx omnēs intellegere potuērunt (Rosc. Am. 87), all could understand how bold you are. [Direct: quam es audāx!]
 - doleam necne doleam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 29), it is of no account whether I suffer or not. [Double question.]
 - quaesivi & Catilina in conventu apud M. Laecam fuisset necne (Cat. ii. 13), I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting at Marcus Laca's or not. [Double question.]
 - rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Cf. rogat mē sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]
 - hoc dubium est, uter nostrum sit inverecundior (Acad. ii. 126), this is doubtful, which of us two is the less modest.
 - incerti quatenus Volero exerceret victoriam (Liv. ii. 55), uncertain how far Volero would push victory. [As if dubitantes quatenus, etc.]
- NOTE. An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb (as in the fourth example), the direct object (as in the first), the secondary object (as in the sixth), an appositive (as in the seventh).
- 575. The Sequence of Tenses in Indirect Question is illustrated by the following examples:
 - dīcō quid faciam, I tell you what I am doing.
 - dīcō quid factūrus sim, I tell you what I will (shall) do.
 - dīcō quid fēcerim, I tell you what I did (have done, was doing).
 - dīxī quid facerem, I told you what I was doing.
 - dīxī quid fēcissem, I told you what I had done (had been doing).
 - dixi quid factūrus essem, I told you what I would (should) do (was going to do).
 - dixi quid factūrus fuissem, I told you what I would (should) have done.
- a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic Conjugation:
 - prospicio qui concursus futuri sint (Caecil. 42), I foresee what throngs there will be. [Direct: qui erunt?]
 - quid sit futürum crās, fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), forbear to ask what will be on the morrow. [Direct: quid erit or futürum est?]
 - posthāc non scrībam ad tē quid factūrus sim, sed quid fēcerim (Att. x. 18), hereafter I shall not write to you what I am going to do, but what I have done. [Direct: quid facies (or factūrus eris)? quid fēcistī?]
- NOTE. This Periphrastic Future avoids the ambiguity which would be caused by using the Present Subjunctive to refer to future time in such clauses.
- 5. The Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except sometimes in tense:—

- quō mē vertam nesciō (Clu. 4), I do not know which way to turn. [Direct: quō mē vertam?]
- neque satis constabat quid agerent (B. G. iii. 14), and it was not very clear what they were to do. [Direct: quid agamus?]
- nec quisquam satis certum habet, quid aut spēret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7. 10), nor is any one well assured what he shall hope or fear. [Here the future participle with sit could not be used.]
- incerto quid peterent aut vitarent (id. xxviii. 36. 12), since it was doubtful (ablative absolute) what they should seek or shun.
- c. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in early Latin and in poetry:
 - vineam quō in agrō conseri oportet sic observato (Cato R. R. 6. 4), in what soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.
- d. Nesciō quis, when used in an indefinite sense (somebody or other), is not followed by the Subjunctive.

So also nesciō quō (unde, etc.), and the following idiomatic phrases which are practically adverbs:—

mirum (nimirum) quam, marvellously (marvellous how). mirum quantum, tremendously (marvellous how much). immāne quantum, monstrously (monstrous how much). sānē quam, immensely. valdē quam, enormously.

Examples are: —

qui istam nescio quam indolentiam magnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 12), who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever it is.

mirum quantum profuit (Liv. ii. 1), it helped prodigiously.

ita fāto nescio quo contigisse arbitror (Fam. xv. 13), I think it happened so by some fatality or other.

nam suos valde quam paucos habet (id. xi. 13 A. 3), for he has uncommonly few of his own.

sānē quam sum gāvīsus (id. xi. 13 A. 4), I was immensely glad.

immane quantum discrepat (Hor. Od. i. 27. 5), is monstrously at variance.

- 576. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an Indirect Question is often attracted into the main clause as object (Accusative of Anticipation):
 - nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10. 3), you know how slow Marcellus is. [For nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cf. "I know thee who thou art."]
 - Cf. potestne igitur earum rērum, quā rē futūrae sint, ūlla esse praesēnsiō (Div. ii. 15), can there be, then, any foreknowledge as to those things, why they will occur? [A similar use of the Objective Genitive.]

Note. — In some cases the Object of Anticipation becomes the Subject by a change of voice, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative constructions is the result: —

quidam saepe in parva pecunia perspiciuntur quam sint leves (Lael. 63), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).

quem ad modum Pompêium oppügnārent ā mē indicātī sunt (Leg. Agr. i. 5), it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey (they have been shown by me, how they attacked).

a. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by sī in the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 572. b. n.):—

circumfunduntur hostes si quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.

visam si domi est (Ter. Haut. 170), I will go see if he is at home.

NOTE. — This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

For the Potential Subjunctive with forsitan (originally an Indirect Question), see § 447. a.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

577. The use of the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (ōrātiō oblīqua) is a comparatively late form of speech, developed in the Latin and Greek only, and perhaps separately in each of them. It is wholly wanting in Sanskrit, but some forms like it have grown up in English and German.

The essential character of Indirect Discourse is, that the language of some other person than the writer or speaker is compressed into a kind of Substantive Clause, the verb of the main clause becoming Infinitive, while modifying clauses, as well as all hortatory forms of speech, take the Subjunctive. The person of the verb necessarily conforms to the new relation of persons.

The construction of Indirect Discourse, however, is not limited to reports of the language of some person other than the speaker; it may be used to express what any one — whether the speaker or some one else — says, thinks, or perceives, whenever that which is said, thought, or perceived is capable of being expressed in the form of a complete sentence. For anything that can be said etc. can also be reported indirectly as well as directly.

The use of the Infinitive in the main clause undoubtedly comes from its use as a case-form to complete or modify the action expressed by the verb of saying and its object together. This object in time came to be regarded as, and in fact to all intents became, the subject of the infinitive. A transition state is found in Sanskrit, which, though it has no indirect discourse proper, yet allows an indirect predication after verbs of saying and the like by means of a predicative apposition, in such expressions as "The maids told the king [that] his daughter [was] bereft of her senses."

The simple form of indirect statement with the accusative and infinitive was afterwards amplified by introducing dependent or modifying clauses; and in Latin it became a common construction, and could be used to report whole speeches etc., which in other languages would have the direct form. (Compare the style of reporting speeches in English, where only the person and tense are changed.)

The Subjunctive in the subordinate clauses of Indirect Discourse has no significance except to make more distinct the fact that these clauses are subordinate; consequently no direct connection has been traced between them and the uses of the mood in simple

sentences. It is probable that the subjunctive in indirect questions (§ 574), in informal indirect discourse (§ 592), and in clauses of the integral part (§ 593) represents the earliest steps of a movement by which the subjunctive became in some degree a mood of subordination.

The Subjunctive standing for hortatory forms of speech in Indirect Discourse is simply the usual hortatory subjunctive, with only a change of person and tense (if necessary), as in the reporter's style.

578. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer (Ōrātiō Rēcta).

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted (Ōrātiō Oblīqua).

Note.—The term Indirect Discourse (ōrātiō oblīqua) is used in two senses. In the wider sense it includes all clauses—of whatever kind—which express the words or thought of any person indirectly, that is, in a form different from that in which the person said the words or conceived the thought. In the narrower sense the term Indirect Discourse is restricted to those cases in which some complete proposition is cited in the form of an Indirect Quotation, which may be extended to a narrative or an address of any length, as in the speeches reported by Cæsar and Livy. In this book the term is used in the restricted sense.

FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE

579. Verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving, govern the Indirect Discourse.

Note. — Inquam, said I (etc.) takes the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

Declaratory Sentences in Indirect Discourse

- 580. In Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive:
 - scio me paene incredibilem rem polliceri (B. C. iii. 86), I know that I am promising an almost incredible thing. [Direct: polliceor.]
 - non arbitror të ita sentire (Fam. x. 26. 2), I do not suppose that you feel thus. [Direct: sentis.]
 - spērō mē līberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear. [Direct: līberātus sum.]

¹ Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cognosco, compertum habeo, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, existimo, arbitror, etc.; (3) telling, dicō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, promittō, certiorem faciō, etc.; (4) perceiving, sentiō, comperio, videō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.

- [dicit] esse non nullos quorum auctoritas plurimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some, whose influence most prevails. [Direct: sunt non nulli...valet.]
- nisi iūrāsset, scelus sē factūrum [esse] arbitrābātur (Verr. ii. 1. 123), he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath. [Direct: nisi iūrāverō, faciam.]
- a. The verb of saying etc. is often not expressed, but implied in some word or in the general drift of the sentence:
 - consulis alterius nomen invisum civităti fuit: nimium Tarquinios regno adsuesse; initium & Prisco factum; regnasse dein Ser. Tullium, etc. (Liv. ii. 2), the name of the other consul was hateful to the state; the Tarquins (they thought) had become too much accustomed to royal power, etc. [Here invisum implies a thought, and this thought is added in the form of Indirect Discourse.]
 - ōrantēs ut urbibus saltem iam enim agrōs dēplōrātōs esse opem senātus ferret (id. xli. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.
- b. The verb nego, deny, is commonly used in preference to dico with a negative:—
 - [Stōici] negant quidquam [esse] bonum nisi quod honestum sit (Fin. ii. 68), the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right.
- c. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom:
 - minātur sēsē abīre (Pl. Asin. 604), he threatens to go away. [Direct: abeō, I am going away.]
 - spērant sē maximum frūctum esse captūros (Lael. 79), they hope to gain the utmost advantage. [Direct: capiëmus.]
 - spērat sē absolūtum īrī (Sull. 21), he hopes that he shall be acquitted. [Direct: absolvar.]
 - quem inimicissimum futūrum esse promitto ac spondeo (Mur. 90), who I promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies. [Direct: erit.]
 - dolor fortitudinem sē dēbilitātūrum minātur (Tusc. v. 76), pain threatens to wear down fortitude. [Direct: dēbilitābö.]
 - confido me quod velim facile a te impetraturum (Fam. xi. 16. 1), I trust I shall easily obtain from you what I wish. [Direct: quod volo, impetrato.]
- Note.—These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive (§ 456). So regularly in early Latin (except spērō):—1
 - pollicentur obsides dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages. promisi dolium vini dare (Pl. Cist. 542), I promised to give a jar of wine.
 - 1 Compare the Greek agrist infinitive after similar verbs.

- d. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying, or as verbs of commanding, effecting, and the like. These take as their object either an Infinitive with subject accusative or a Substantive clause of Purpose or Result, according to the sense.
 - 1. Infinitive with Subject Accusative (Indirect Discourse):
 - laudem sapientiae statuō esse maximam (Fam. v. 13), I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest. [Indirect Discourse.]
 - rēs ipsa monēbat tempus esse (Att. x. 8. 1), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. monēre ut, warn to do something.]
 - fac mihi esse persuāsum (N. D. i. 75), suppose that I am persuaded of that. [Cf. facere ut, bring it about that.]
 - hoc volunt persuadere, non interire animas (B. G. vi. 14), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.
 - 2. Subjunctive (Substantive Clause of Purpose or Result):
 - statuunt ut decem milia hominum mittantur (B. G. vii. 21), they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent. [Purpose clause (cf. § 563).]
 - huic persuadet uti ad hostis transeat (id. iii. 18), he persuades him to pass over to the enemy.
 - Pompêius suis praedixerat ut Caesaris impetum exciperent (B. C. iii. 92), Pompey had instructed his men beforehand to await Cæsar's attack.
 - dēnūntiāvit ut essent animo parātī (id. iii. 86), he bade them be alert and steadfast (ready in spirit).
- Note. The infinitive with subject accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause (\S 563. d).
- 581. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is regularly expressed in Indirect Discourse, even if it is wanting in the direct:

 ōrātor sum, I am an orator; dīcit sē esse ōrātōrem, he says he is an orator.
 - Note 1. But the subject is often omitted if easily understood:
 - ignoscere imprudentiae dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness. eadem ab aliis quaerit: reperit esse vēra (id. i. 18), he inquires about these same things from others; he finds that they are true.
- Note 2. After a relative, or quam (than), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative:—

 tē suspicor eīsdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum commovērī (Cat. M. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.
 - confido tamen haec quoque tibi non minus grata quam ipsos libros futura (Plin. Ep. iii. 5. 20), I trust that these facts too will be no less pleasing to you than the books themselves.
- Note 3. In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb:
 - vir bonus et sapiens ait esse paratus (Hor. Ep. i. 7. 22), a good and wise man says he is prepared, etc. [In prose: ait se esse paratum.]
 - sēnsit medios dēlāpsus in hostīs (Aen. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sē esse dēlāpsum.]

- 582. When the verb of saying etc. is passive, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal. But the Personal construction is more common and is regularly used in the tenses of incomplete action:
 - beātē vīxisse videor (Lael. 15), I seem to have lived happily.
 - Epaminondas fidibus praeclare cecinisse dicitur (Tusc. i. 4), Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.
 - multi idem factūri esse dicuntur (Fam. xvi. 12. 4), many are said to be about to do the same thing. [Active: dicunt multos factūros (esse).]
 - primi traduntur arte quadam verba vinxisse (Or. 40), they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.
 - Bibulus audiēbātur esse in Syriā (Att. v. 18), it was heard that Bibulus was in Syria (Bibulus was heard, etc.). [Direct: Bibulus est.]
 - ceterae Illyrici legiones secuturae sperabantur (Tac. H. ii. 74), the rest of the legions of Illyricum were expected to follow.
 - vidēmur enim quiētūrī fuisse, nisi essēmus lacessītī (De Or. ii. 230), it seems that we should have kept quiet, if we had not been molested (we seem, etc.). [Direct: quiēssēmus . . . nisi essēmus lacessītī.]
- NOTE. The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly verba sentiendi etc.: as, colligor dominae placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6. 61), it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.
- a. In the compound tenses of verbs of saying etc., the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular:
 - trāditum est etiam Homērum caecum fuisse (Tusc. v. 114), it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.
 - ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiosam, sed dicendum est plane nullam esse rem publicam (Rep. iii. 43), where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.
- NOTE. An indirect narrative begun in the personal construction may be continued with the Infinitive and Accusative (as De Or. ii. 299; Liv. v. 41. 9).

Subordinate Clauses in Indirect Discourse

- 583. A Subordinate Clause merely explanatory, or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative:
 - quis neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī (Cat. iii. 21), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?
 - cûius ingeniō putābat ea quae gesserat posse celebrārī (Arch. 20), by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated. [Here the fact expressed by quae gesserat, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: quae gessisset would mean, what Marius claimed to have done.]

- Note.—Such a clause in the indicative is not regarded as a part of the Indirect Discourse; but it often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or the Subjunctive (cf. §§ 591-593).
- a. A subordinate clause in Indirect Discourse occasionally takes the Indicative when the fact is emphasized:
 - factum êius hostis periculum . . . cum, Cimbris et Teutonis . . . pulsis, non minorem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperator meritus vidēbātur (B. G. i. 40), that a trial of this enemy had been made when, on the defeat of the Cimbri and Teutoni, the army seemed to have deserved no less credit than the commander himself.
- **b.** Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (see $\S 308. f$):—
 - Mārcellus requisisse dicitur Archimēdem illum, quem cum audīsset interfectum permolestē tulisse (Verr. iv. 131), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed. [quem = et eum.]
 - cënsent unum quemque nostrum mundi esse partem, ex quo [= et ex eo] illud natura consequi (Fin. iii. 64), they say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.
- Note. Really subordinate clauses occasionally take the accusative and infinitive: as, quem ad modum sī non dēdātur obses pro rupto foedus sē habitūrum, sīc dēditam inviolātam ad suos remissūrum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.
- c. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with quam:
 - addit sē prius occīsum īrī ab eō quam mē violātum īrī (Att. ii. 20. 2), he adds that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.
 - nonne adfirmāvī quidvīs mē potius perpessūrum quam ex Italiā exitūrum (Fam. ii. 16. 3), did I not assert that I would endure anything rather than leave Italy?
 - Note. The subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see § 535. c).

Tenses of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse

- 584. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is *present*, past, or future with reference to the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced:—
 - ¹ For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see § 164. 3. c.

cado, I am falling.

dicit se cadere, he says he is falling.
dixit se cadere, he said he was falling.

cadēbam, I was falling; cecidī, I fell, have fallen; cecideram, I had fallen.

dicit se cecidisse, he says he was falling, fell, has fallen, had fallen. dixit se cecidisse, he said he fell, had fallen.

cadam, I shall fall.

dicit sē cāsūrum [esse], he says he shall fall. dixit sē cāsūrum [esse], he said he should fall.

cecidero, I shall have fallen.

dicit fore ut ceciderit [rare], he says he shall have fallen. dixit fore ut cecidisset [rare], he said he should have fallen.

a. All varieties of past time are usually expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Perfect Infinitive, which may stand for the Imperfect, the Perfect, or the Pluperfect Indicative of the Direct.

NOTE. — Continued or repeated action in past time is sometimes expressed by the Present Infinitive, which in such cases stands for the Imperfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse and is often called the *Imperfect Infinitive*.

This is the regular construction after memini when referring to a matter of actual experience or observation: as,—tē memini haec dicere, I remember your saying this (that you said this). [Direct: dixisti or dicēbās.]

b. The present infinitive posse often has a future sense:—
totius Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant (B. G. i. 3), they hope that they shall
be able to get possession of all Gaul.

Tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse

585. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse follow the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (§ 482). They depend for their sequence on the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced.

Thus in the sentence, dixit so Roman iturum ut consulem videret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, videret follows the sequence of dixit without regard to the Future Infinitive, iturum [esse], on which it directly depends.

NOTE. — This rule applies to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses, to that which stands for the imperative etc. (see examples, § 588), and to that in questions (§ 586).

a. A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is often in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of saying etc. is in a primary tense (cf. § 485. j); so regularly when these tenses would have been used in Direct Discourse:—

- Tarquinium dixisse ferunt tum exsulantem se intellexisse quos fidos amicos habuisset (Lael. 53), they tell us that Tarquin said that then in his exile he had found out what faithful friends he had had. [Here the main verb of saying, ferunt, is primary, but the time is carried back by dixisse and intellexisse, and the sequence then becomes secondary.]
- tantum profeciese videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in abundance of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.
- NOTE 1.—The proper sequence may be seen, in each case, by turning the Perfect Infinitive into that tense of the Indicative which it represents. Thus, if it stands for an imperfect or an historical perfect, the sequence will be secondary; if it stands for a perfect definite, the sequence may be either primary or secondary (§ 485. a).
- Note 2. The so-called imperfect infinitive after memini (§ 584. a. n.) takes the secondary sequence: as, ad mē adīre quōsdam memini, qui dicerent (Fam. iii. 10.6), I remember that some persons visited me, to tell me, etc.
- b. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of saying etc. is in a secondary tense:
 - dīcēbant... totidem Nerviōs (pollicērī) quī longissimē absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many.

Note. — This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (repraesentātiō). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the sequence, and sometimes affected by repraesentātiō. Examples may be seen in B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

Certain constructions are never affected by repraesentātiō. Such are the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with cum temporal, antequam, and priusquam.

Questions in Indirect Discourse

586. A Question in Indirect Discourse may be either in the Subjunctive or in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

A real question, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question, asked for effect and implying its own answer, is put in the Infinitive:—

- quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possessiones venīret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct: quid vis? cūr venīs?]
- num recentium iniūriārum memoriam [sē] dēpōnere posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num possum?]
- quem signum datūrum fugientibus? quem ausūrum Alexandrō succēdere (Q. C. iii. 5. 7), who will give the signal on the retreat? who will dare succeed Alexander? [Rhetorical. Direct: quis dabit... audēbit.]

- NOTE 1. No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as rhetorical or real often depends merely on the writer's point of view:
 - utrum partem regni petiturum esse, an totum erepturum (Liv. xlv. 19. 15), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?
 - quid tandem praetori faciendum fuisse (id. xxxi. 48), what, pray, ought a prætor to have done?
 - quid repente factum [esse] cūr, etc. (id. xxxiv. 54), what had suddenly happened, that, etc.?
- Note 2.—Questions coming immediately after a verb of asking are treated as Indirect Questions and take the Subjunctive (see § 574). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either real or rhetorical. See quaesivit, etc. (Liv. xxxvii. 15).

For the use of tenses, see § 585.

587. A Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect:—

cūr aliquos ex suis āmitteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct: cūr āmittam?]

Commands in Indirect Discourse

588. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse:—

reminiscerëtur veteris incommodi (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]

finem faciat (id. i. 20), let him make an end. [Direct: fac.]

ferrent opem, adiuvarent (Liv. ii. 6), let them bring aid, let them help.

a. This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the Hortatory and the Optative Subjunctive as well.

Note 1.—Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of saying etc. (cf. §§ 483, 585).

Note 2.—A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by ne with the present or imperfect subjunctive, even when not with the infinitive would be used in the Direct: as,—ne perturbarentur (B. G. vii. 29), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct: notite perturbari. But sometimes notlet is found in Indirect Discourse.]

Conditions in Indirect Discourse

- 589. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:—
- 1. The Protasis, being a subordinate clause, is always in the Subjunctive.
- 2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or optative, is always in some form of the Infinitive.

a. The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of less vivid future conditions (§ 516. b) becomes the Future Infinitive like the Future Indicative in the apodosis of more vivid future conditions.

Thus there is no distinction between more and less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse are —

1. Simple Present Condition (§ 515):—

- (dīxit) sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescrīberet quem ad modum suō iūre ūterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī (B. G. i. 36), he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. [Direct: sī nōn praescrībō...nōn oportet.]
- praedicāvit... sī pāce ūtī velint, iniquum esse, etc. (id. i. 44), he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct: sī volunt ... est. Present tense kept by repraesentātiō (§ 585. b. n.).]

2. Simple Past Condition (§ 515): —

non dicam no illud quidem, si maxime in culpă fuerit Apollonius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitătis honestissimum tam graviter animadverti, causă indictă, non oportuisse (Verr. v. 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollonius was very greatly in fault, still an honorable man from an honorable state ought not to have been punished so severely without having his case heard. [Direct: si fuit... non oportuit.]

3. Future Conditions (§ 516):—

- (dīxit) quod sī praetereā nēmō sequātur, tamen sē cum sōlā decimā legione itūrum (B. G. i. 40), but if nobody else should follow, still he would go with the tenth legion alone. [Direct: sī sequētur...ībō. Present tense by repraesentātiō (§ 585. b. n.).]
- Haeduis sē obsidēs redditūrum non esse, neque eis... bellum illātūrum, si in eo manērent, quod convēnisset, stipendiumque quotannīs penderent: sī id non fēcissent, longē eis frāternum nomen populī Romānī āfutūrum (id. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Haedui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement which had been made. and paid tribute yearly; but that, if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct: reddam...inferam...sī manēbunt...pendent: sī non fēcerint...aberit.]
- id Datames ut audivit, sensit, si in turbam exisset ab homine tam necessario se relictum, futurum [esse] ut ceteri consilium sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), when Datames heard this, he saw that, if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example. [Direct: si exierit... sequentur.]

- (putăverunt) nisi me civităte expulissent, obtinere se non posse licentiam cupiditătum suărum (Att. x. 4), they thought that unless they drove me out of the state, they could not have free play for their desires. [Direct: nisi (Ciceronem) expulerimus, obtinere non poterimus.]
- b. In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 517) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice:—
 - 1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.
- 2. The Apodosis, if active, takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in -ūrus with fuisse.
- 3. If the verb of the Apodosis is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis futurum fuisse ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.
 - 4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes a Perfect Infinitive.

Examples are: —

- nec se superstitem filiae futurum fuisse, nisi spem ulcīscendae mortis êius in auxilio commilitonum habuisset (Liv. iii. 50. 7), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct: non superstes essem, nisi habuissem.]
- illud Asia cogitet, nüllam ä se neque belli externi neque discordiarum domesticarum calamitatem afuturam fuisse, si hoc imperio non teneretur (Q. Fr. i. 1. 34), let Asia (personified) think of this, that no disaster, etc., would not be hers, if she were not held by this government. [Direct: abesset, si non tenerer.]
- quid inimicitiarum créditis [mē] exceptūrum fuisse, al Insontis lacesaissem (Q. C. vi. 10. 18), what enmities do you think I should have incurred, if I had wantonly assailed the innocent? [excepissem . . . sī lacesaissem.]
- invitum se dicere, nec dicturum fuisse, ni caritas rei publicae vinceret (Liv. ii. 2), that he spoke unwillingly and should not have spoken, did not love for the state prevail. [Direct: nec dixissem . . . ni vinceret.]
- nisi eð tempore quidam nüntil de Caesaris victoria... essent allati, existimabant plerique futürum fuisse uti [oppidum] amitteretur (B. C. iii. 101), most people thought that unless at that time reports of Cæsar's victory had been brought, the town would have been lost. [Direct: nisi essent allati... amissum esset.]
- quorum si aetas potuisset esse longinquior, futurum fuisse ut omnibus perfectis artibus hominum vita erudiretur (Tusc. iii. 69), if life could have been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct: si potuisset . . . erudita esset.]
- at plerique existimant, si acrius insequi voluisset, bellum eo die potuisse finire (B. C. iii. 51), but most people think that, if he had chosen to follow up the pursuit more vigorously, he could have ended the war on that day.

 [Direct: si voluisset... potuit.]
- Caesar respondit... sī alicūius iniūriae sibi conscius fuisset, non fuisse difficile cavēre (B. G. i. 14), Cæsar replied that if [the Roman people] had been aware of any wrong act, it would not have been hard for them to take precautions. [Direct: sī fuisset, non difficile fuit (§ 517. c).]

NOTE 1.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the *apodosis* from Past Conditions contrary to fact, but the *protasis* may keep them distinct.

Note 2.—The periphrasis futurum fuisse ut is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it, but not in Cæsar or Cicero.

Note 3. — Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as, — Titurius clāmābat sī Caesar adesset neque Carnutēs, etc., neque Eburōnēs tantā cum contemptione nostra ad castra ventūros esse (B. G. v. 29), Titurius cried out that if Cæsar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt. [Direct: sī adesset . . . venīrent.]

590. The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address:—

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Sī pācem populus Romānus cum Helvētiīs faceret, in eam partem itūros atque ibi futūros Helvētios, ubi eos Caesar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sin bello persequi perseveraret, reminiscerētur et veteris incommodī populi Romani, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus esset, cum ei qui flümen trānsissent suis auxilium ferre non possent, në ob eam rem aut suae magno opere virtūtī tribueret, aut ipsos dēspiceret: sē ita ā patribus māiōribusque suīs didicisse, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contenderent, aut insidiis niteren-Qua re ne committeret, ut is locus ubi constitissent ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen caperet, aut memoriam proderet. — B. G. i. 13.

DIRECT DISCOURSE

Sī pācem populus Romānus cum Helvētiīs faciet, in eam partem ībunt atque ibi erunt Helvētiī, ubi eōs tū constitueris atque esse volueris: sin bello persequi perseverabis, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiörum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus es, cum ei qui flümen transierant suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut tuae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueris, aut nos dēspexeris: nos ita ā patribus māioribusque nostrīs didicimus, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contendāmus, aut īnsidils nītāmur. Quā rē noli committere, ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen capiat, aut memoriam prodat.

INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES

591. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive —

- 1. When it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (Informal Indirect Discourse), or
- 2. When it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive (Attraction).¹

¹ See note on Indirect Discourse (§ 577).

Informal Indirect Discourse

- 592. A Subordinate Clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker:—
- 1. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question, expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse:
 - animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 14), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
 - huic imperat quas possit adeat civitates (B. G. iv. 21), he orders him to visit what states he can.
 - hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, qui sē diēs noctīsque stimulat ac pungit, ut ēvellātis postulat (Rosc. Am. 6), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night. [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in ēvellātis, but is an assertion made by the subject of postulat.]
- 2. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it:
 - sī quid dē hīs rēbus dīcere vellet, fēcī potestātem (Cat. iii. 11), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.
 - tulit de caede quae in Appia via facta esset (Mil. 15), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.
 - nisi restituissent statuas, vehementer minatur (Verr. ii. 162), he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues. [Here the main clause, "that he will inflict punishment," is contained in minatur.]
 - iīs auxilium suum pollicitus sī ab Suēbīs premerentur (B. G. iv. 19), he promised them his aid if they should be molested by the Suevi. [= pollicitus sē auxilium lātūrum, etc.]
 - prohibitio tollendi, nisi pactus esset, vim adhibebat pactioni (Verr. iii. 37), the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.
- 3. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) (see § 540):—
 - Paetus omnīs libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1. 12), Pætus presented to me all the books which (he said) his brother had left.
- Note. Under this head even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive. So also with quod even the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive (§ 540. n. 2). Here belong also non quia, non quod, introducing a reason expressly to deny it. (See § 540. n. 3.)

Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction)

- 593. A clause depending upon a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause:—1
 - imperat, dum res indicetur, hominem adservent: cum indiceta sit, ad se ut addicant (Verr. iii. 55), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when it is judged, to bring him to him.
 - etenim quis tam dissoluto animo est, qui haec cum videat, tacere ac neglegere possit (Rosc. Am. 32), for who is so reckless of spirit that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?
 - mös est Athenis laudāri in contione eos qui sint in proeliis interfecti (Or. 151), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudārī is equivalent to ut laudentur.]
- a. But a dependent clause may be closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, and still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause:
 - quodam modo postulat ut, quem ad modum est, sic etiam appelletur, tyrannus (Att. x. 4.2), in a manner he demands that as he is, so he may be called, a tyrant.
 - nātūra fert ut els faveāmus qui eadem pericula quibus nos perfunctī sumus ingrediuntur (Mur. 4), nature prompts us to feel friendly towards those who are entering on the same dangers which we have passed through.
 - në hostës, quod tantum multitudine poterant, suos circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.
 - sī mea in tē essent officia solum tanta quanta magis ā tē ipso praedicārī quam ā mē ponderārī solent, verēcundius ā tē . . . peterem (Fam. ii. 6). if my good services to you were only so great as they are wont rather to be called by you than to be estimated by me, I should, etc.
- NOTE 1.— The use of the Indicative in such clauses sometimes serves to emphasize the fact, as true independently of the statement contained in the subjunctive or infinitive clause. But in many cases no such distinction is perceptible.
- Note 2.—It is often difficult to distinguish between Informal Indirect Discourse and the Integral Part. Thus in imperavit ut ea fierent quae opus essent, essent may stand for sunt, and then will be Indirect Discourse, being a part of the thought, but not a part of the order; or it may stand for erunt, and then will be Integral Part, being a part of the order itself. The difficulty of making the distinction in such cases is evidence of the close relationship between these two constructions.
- The subjunctive in this use is of the same nature as the subjunctive in the main clause. A dependent clause in a clause of purpose is really a part of the purpose, as is seen from the use of should and other auxiliaries in English. In a result clause this is less clear, but the result construction is a branch of the characteristic (§ 534), to which category the dependent clause in this case evidently belongs when it takes the subjunctive.

594. IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX

- 1. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 282).
- 2. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case (§ 286).
- 3. Superlatives (more rarely Comparatives) denoting order and succession—also medius, (cēterus), reliquus—usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant (§ 293).
- 4. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively, and that in -ī oftenest objectively (§ 295. b).
- 5. The Reflexive Pronoun (sē), and usually the corresponding possessive (suus), are used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 299).
- 6. To express Possession and similar ideas the Possessive Pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (§ 302. a).
- 7. A Possessive Pronoun or an Adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 302. e).
- 8. A Relative Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number, but its Case depends on its construction in the clause in which it stands (§ 305).
- 9. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person (§ 316).
- 10. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (§ 321).
- 11. A Question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 332).
- 12. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 332. b).
- 13. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative (§ 339).
- 14. The Vocative is the case of direct address (§ 340).
- 15. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive (§ 342).
- 16. The Possessive Genitive denotes the person or thing to which an object, quality, feeling, or action belongs (§ 343).

- 17. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (§ 344).
- 18. The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective (§ 345).
- 19. Words denoting a part are followed by the Genitive of the whole to which the part belongs (Partitive Genitive, § 346).
- 20. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the Genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 348).
- 21. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; participles in -ns when used as adjectives; and verbals in -ax, govern the Genitive (§ 349. a, b, c).
- 22. Verbs of remembering and forgetting take either the Accusative or the Genitive of the object (§ 350).
- 23. Verbs of reminding take with the Accusative of the person a Genitive of the thing (§ 351).
- 24. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the charge or penalty (§ 352).
- 25. The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (Indirect Object, § 361).
- 26. Many verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative (§ 367).
- 27. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, admit the Dative of the indirect object (§ 370).
- 28. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession (§ 373).
- 29. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 374).
- 30. The Dative often depends, not on any particular word, but on the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference, § 376).
- 31. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 381).
- 32. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 382).
- 33. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites (§ 384).

- 34. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 387).
- 35. An intransitive verb often takes the Accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner (Cognate Accusative, § 390).
- 36. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 393).
- 37. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 394).
- 38. Some verbs of asking and teaching may take two Accusatives, one of the Person, and the other of the Thing (§ 396).
- 39. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 397. e).
- 40. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§§ 424. c, 425).
- 41. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the Ablative (Ablative of Separation, § 400).
- 42. The Ablative, usually with a preposition, is used to denote the source from which anything is derived or the material of which it consists (§ 403).
- 43. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 404).
- 44. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab (§ 405).
- 45. The Comparative degree is often followed by the Ablative signifying than (§ 406).
- 46. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 407).
- 47. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action (§ 409).
- 48. The deponents, ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vēscor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 410).
- 49. Opus and usus, signifying need, are followed by the Ablative (§ 411).
- 50. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 412).

- 51. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum (§ 413).
- 52. With Comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the degree of difference (§ 414).
- 53. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with an adjective or genitive Modifier (§ 415).
- 54. The price of a thing is put in the Ablative (§ 416).
- 55. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done (§ 418).
- 56. The adjectives dignus and indignus take the Ablative (§ 418. b).
- 57. A noun or pronoun, with a participle in agreement, may be put in the Ablative to define the time or circumstances of an action (Ablative Absolute, § 419).
 - An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (§ 419. a).
- 58. Time when, or within which, is denoted by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative (§ 423).
- 59. Relations of Place are expressed as follows:—
 - 1. The place from which, by the Ablative with ab, de, ex.
 - 2. The place to which (or end of motion), by the Accusative with ad or in.
 - 3. The place where, by the Ablative with in (Locative Ablative). (§ 426.)
- 60. With names of towns and small islands, and with domus and rus, the relations of place are expressed as follows:—
 - 1. The place from which, by the Ablative without a preposition.
 - 2. The place to which, by the Accusative without a preposition.
 - 3. The place where, by the Locative. (§ 427.)
- 61. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used in the present tense to express an exhortation, a command, or a concession (§§ 439, 440).
- 62. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express a wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time (§ 441).
- 63. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing's being done (Deliberative Subjunctive, § 444).

- 64. The Potential Subjunctive is used to suggest an action as possible or conceivable (§ 446).
- 65. The Imperative is used in commands and entreaties (§ 448).
- 66. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by noli with the Infinitive, (2) by cave with the Present Subjunctive, (3) by ne with the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 450).
- 67. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative (§ 452).
- 68. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative (Complementary Infinitive, § 456).
- 69. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, see § 459).
- 70. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the Nominative (Historical Infinitive, § 463).
- 71. Sequence of Tenses. In complex sentences, a primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in the dependent clause; a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 483).
- 72. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 489).
- 73. The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§§ 501-507).
- 74. The Supine in -um is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose (§ 509).
- 75. The Supine in -ū is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, to denote Specification (§ 510).
- 76. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum ut, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§ 528).
- 77. Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative në (ut në), or by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb (§ 531).
- 78. A Relative Clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, especially where the antecedent is otherwise undefined (§ 535).
- 79. Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idoneus, take a Subjunctive clause with a relative (rarely with ut) (\S 535. f).

- 80. Clauses of Result take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb (§ 537).
- 81. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of another (§ 540).
- 82. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut prīmum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac, or simul alone) take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present) (§ 543).
- 83. A Temporal clause with cum, when, and some past tense of the Indicative dates or defines the time at which the action of the main verb occurred (§ 545).
- 84. A Temporal clause with cum and the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive describes the circumstances that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb (§ 546).
- 85. Cum Causal or Concessive takes the Subjunctive (§ 549). For other concessive particles, see § 527.
- 86. In Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 580).
- 87. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is present, past, or future with reference to the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced (§ 584).
- 88. In Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ 586).
- 89. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 588).
- 90. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (Informal Indirect Discourse, § 592).
- 91. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause (Attraction, § 593).

For Prepositions and their cases, see §§ 220, 221. For Conditional Sentences, see § 512 ff. (Scheme in § 514.) For ways of expressing Purpose, see § 533.

ORDER OF WORDS

- 595. Latin differs from English in having more freedom in the arrangement of words for the purpose of showing the relative importance of the ideas in a sentence.
- 596. As in other languages, the Subject tends to stand first, the Predicate last. Thus,—
 - Pausanias Lacedaemonius magnus homo sed varius in omni genere vitae fuit (Nep. Paus. 1), Pausanias the Lacedæmonian was a great man, but inconsistent in the whole course of his life.

NOTE.—This happens because, from the speaker's ordinary point of view, the subject of his discourse is the most important thing in it, as singled out from all other things to be spoken of.

- a. There is in Latin, however, a special tendency to place the verb itself last of all, after all its modifiers. But many writers purposely avoid the monotony of this arrangement by putting the verb last but one, followed by some single word of the predicate.
- 597. In connected discourse the word most prominent in the speaker's mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence.

This relative prominence corresponds to that indicated in English by a graduated stress of voice (usually called *emphasis*).

- a. The difference in *emphasis* expressed by difference in order of words is illustrated in the following passages:
 - apud Xenophöntem autem moriëns Cyrus mâior haec dīcit (Cat. M. 79), in Xenophon too, on his death-bed Cyrus the elder utters these words.
 - Cyrus quidem haec moriens; nos, si placet, nostra videamus (id. 82), Cyrus, to be sure, utters these words on his death-bed; let us, if you please, consider our own case.
 - Cyrus quidem apud Xenophontem eo sermone, quem moriens habuit (id. 30), Cyrus, to be sure, in Xenophon, in that speech which he uttered on his death-bed.

Note.—This stress or emphasis, however, in English does not necessarily show any violent contrast to the rest of the words in the sentence, but is infinitely varied, constantly increasing and diminishing, and often so subtle as to be unnoticed except in careful study. So, as a general rule, the precedence of words in a Latin sentence is not mechanical, but corresponds to the prominence which a good speaker would mark by skilfully managed stress of voice. A Latin written sentence, therefore, has all the clearness and expression which could be given to a spoken discourse by the best actor in English. Some exceptions to the rule will be treated later.

The first chapter of Cæsar's Gallic War, if rendered so as to bring out as far as possible the shades of emphasis, would run thus:—

GAUL, in the widest sense, is divided into three parts, which are inhabited (as follows): one by the Belgians, another by the Aquitani, the third by a people called in their own language Celts, in ours Gauls. These in their language, institutions, and laws are all of them different. The GAULS (proper) are separated from the Aquitani by the river Garonne, from the Belgians by the Marne and Seine. Of these 18 (tribes) the bravest of all 14 are the Belgians, for the reason that they live farthest 15 away

Gallia est omnis dīvīsa in partīs trīs, quārum ūnam incolunt Belgae, aliam Aquītānī, tertiam quī ipsorum linguā Celtae, nostrā Gallī appellantur. Hī omnēs linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt. Gallos ab Aquītānīs Garumna flūmen, ā Belgīs Mātrona et Sēquana dīvidit. Hōrum omnium fortissimī sunt Belgae, proptereā quod ā cultū atque hūmānitāte

- ¹ GAUL: emphatic as the subject of discourse, as with a title or the like.
- ² Divided: opposed to the false conception (implied in the use of omnis) that the country called Gallia by the Romans is one. This appears more clearly from the fact that Cæsar later speaks of the Galli in a narrower sense as distinct from the other two tribes, who with them inhabit Gallia in the wider sense.
- ⁸ Parts: continuing the emphasis begun in dīvīsa. Not three parts as opposed to any other number, but into parts at all.
 - 4 Inhabited: emphatic as the next subject, "The inhabitants of these parts are, etc."
- ⁵ One: given more prominence than it otherwise would have on account of its close connection with quarum.
 - 6 Another, etc.: opposed to one.
 - ⁷ Their own, ours: strongly opposed to each other.
- ⁸ These (tribes): the main subject of discourse again, collecting under one head the names previously mentioned.
- 9 Language, etc.: these are the most prominent ideas, as giving the striking points which distinguish the tribes. The emphasis becomes natural in English if we say "these have a different language, different institutions, different laws."
- ¹⁰ All of them: the emphasis on all marks the distributive character of the adjective, as if it were "every one has its own, etc."
- ¹¹ GAULS: emphatic as referring to the Gauls proper in distinction from the other tribes.
- 12 Separated: though this word contains an indispensable idea in the connection, yet it has a subordinate position. It is not emphatic in Latin, as is seen from the fact that it cannot be made emphatic in English. The sense is: The Gauls lie between the Aquitani on the one side, and the Belgians on the other.
 - 18 Of THESE: the subject of discourse.
- 14 All: emphasizing the superlative idea in "bravest"; they, as Gauls, are assumed to be warlike, but the most so of all of them are the Belgians.
- place, but it is dwarfed in importance by the predominance of the main idea, the effeminating influences from which the Belgians are said to be free. It is not that they live farthest off that is insisted on, but that the civilization of the Province etc., which would soften them, comes less in their way. It is to be noticed also that absunt has already been anticipated by the construction of cultū and still more by longissimē, so that when it comes it amounts only to a formal part of the sentence. Thus,— "because the civilization etc. of the Province (which would soften them) is farthest from them."

from the civilization and refinement of the Province, and because they are LEAST 1 of all of them subject to the visits of traders,2 and to the (consequent) importation of such things as 8 tend to soften 4 their warlike spirit; and are also nearest 5 to the Germans, who live across the Rhine,6 and with whom they are incessantly 7 at war. For the same reason the HELVETIANS, as well, are superior to all the other Gauls in valor, because they are engaged in almost daily battles with the Germans, either defending their own boundaries from them, or themselves making war on those of the Germans. Of ALL THIS country, one part — the one which, as has been said, the Gauls (proper) occupy—BEGINS at the river Rhone. Its boundaries are the river Garonne, the ocean, and the confines of the Belgians. It even REACHES on the side of the Sequani and Helvetians the river Rhine. Its general direction is towards The Belgians begin at the north. the extreme limits of Gaul; they reach (on this side) as far as the lower part

provinciae longissime absunt, minimeque ad eos mercatores saepe commeant atque ea quae ad effeminandos animos pertinent important, proximique sunt Germānis, qui trāns Rhēnum incolunt, quibuscum continenter bellum gerunt. Quā dē causā Helvētiī quoque reliquos Gallos virtute praecedunt, quod fere cotidianis proeliis cum Germānis contendunt, cum aut suis fīnibus eōs prohibent, aut ipsī in eōrum fīnibus bellum gerunt. Eōrum ūna pars, quam Gallos obtinere dictum est, initium capit a flumine Rhodano; continētur Garumnā flūmine, Ōceanō, fīnibus Belgārum; attingit etiam ab Sēquanis et Helvētiis flümen Rhēnum; vergit ad septentriones. Belgae ab extrēmis Galliae finibus oriuntur: pertinent ad inferiorem partem fluminis Rhēnī; spectant in septentrionem et orientem sölem. Aquitānia ā Garumnā flūmine ad Pyrenaeos montis et eam partem Öceani quae est ad Hispāniam pertinet; spectat inter occāsum sõlis et septentriones.

of the Rhine. They spread to the northward and eastward.

AQUITANIA extends from the Garonne to the Pyrenees, and that part of the ocean that lies towards Spain. It runs off westward and northward.

- **b.** The more important word is never placed last for emphasis. apparent cases of this usage (when the emphasis is not misconceived) are cases where a word is added as an afterthought, either real or affected, and so has its position not in the sentence to which it is appended, but, as it were, in a new one.
 - ¹ LEAST: made emphatic here by a common Latin order, the *chiasmus* (§ 598. f).
 - ² Traders: the fourth member of the chiasmus, opposed to cultū and hūmānitāte.
- 3 Such things as: the importance of the nature of the importations overshadows the fact that they are imported, which fact is anticipated in traders.
- 4 Soften: cf. what is said in note 15, p. 394. They are brave because they have less to soften them, their native barbarity being taken for granted.
- 5 Nearest: the same idiomatic prominence as in note 1 above, but varied by a special usage combining chiasmus and anaphora (§ 598. f).
 - 6 Across the Rhine: i.e. and so are perfect savages.
- 7 Incessantly: the continuance of the warfare becomes the all-important idea, as if it were "and not a day passes in which they are not at war with them."

- 598. The main rules for the Order of Words are as follows: —
- a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first:—
 - 1. Adjective and Noun: —

omnis homines decet, every man ought (opposed to some who do not).

Lūcius Catilīna nobilī genere natus fuit, magnā vī et animī et corporis, sed ingenio malo prāvoque (Sall. Cat. 5), Lucius Catiline was born of a noble family, with great force of mind and body, but with a nature that was evil and depraved. [Here the adjectives in the first part are the emphatic and important words, no antithesis between the nouns being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the noun is meant to be opposed to those before mentioned, and immediately takes the prominent place, as is seen by the natural English emphasis, thus making a chiasmus.¹]

2. Word with modifying case: —

quid magis Epaminondam, Thebanorum imperatorem, quam victoriae Thebanorum consulere decuit (Inv. i. 69), what should Epaminondas, commander of the Thebans, have aimed at more than the victory of the Thebans?

lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit (id. i. 109), nothing dries quicker than a TEAR. nēmō ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), hardly any one desirous of GLORY (cf. Manil. 7, avidī laudis, EAGER for glory).

b. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns and adverbs, tend to precede the word or words to which they belong:—

cum aliqua perturbatione (Off. i. 137), with some disturbance. hoc uno praestamus (De Or. i. 32), in this one thing we excel. ceterae fere artes, the other arts.

Note. — This happens because such words are usually emphatic; but often the words connected with them are more so, and in such cases the pronouns etc. yield the emphatic place: —

causa aliqua (De Or. i. 250), some CASE.

stilus ille tuus (id. i. 257), that well-known style of yours (in an antithesis; see passage). [Ille is idiomatic in this sense and position.]

Romam quae apportata sunt (Verr. iv. 121), what were carried to Rome (in contrast to what remained at Syracuse).

- c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (§ 284. b), it regularly stands first, or at any rate before its subject:
 - est viri māgnī pūnīre sontis (Off. i. 82), it is the duty of a great man to punish the guilty.

¹ So called from the Greek letter X (chi), on account of the criss-cross arrangement of the words. Thus, $_b^a x_a^b$ (see f below).

- d. The verb may come first, or have a prominent position, either (1) because the *idea* in it is emphatic; or (2) because the *predication of the* whole statement is emphatic; or (3) the tense only may be emphatic:—
 - (1) dicebat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), Cotta used to say the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).
 - idem fēcit adulēscēns M. Antōnius (id. ii. 49), the same thing was done by Mark Antony in his youth. [Opposed to dīxī just before.]
 - facis amice (Lael. 9), you act kindly. [Cf. amice facis, you are very KIND (you act KINDLY).]
 - (2) propensior benignitäs esse debebit in calamitosos nisi forte erunt digni calamitäte (Off. ii. 62), liberality ought to be readier toward the unfortunate unless perchance they REALLY DESERVE their misfortune.
 - praesertim cum scribat (Panaetius) (id. iii. 8), especially when he does say (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]
 - (3) fuimus Trões, fuit Ilium (Aen. ii. 325), we have CEASED to be Trojans, Troy is now no MORE.
 - loquor autem de communibus amicitiis (Off. iii. 45), but I am speaking now of common friendships.
- e. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each and leaving the less prominent parts to follow in inconspicuous places:
 - plūrēs solent esse causae (Off. i. 28), there are usually several reasons.
 - quos āmisimus cīvis, eos Mārtis vis perculit (Marc. 17), what fellow-citizens we have lost, have been stricken down by the violence of war.
 - maximās tibi omnēs grātiās agimus (id. 33), we all render you the WARMEST thanks.
 - haec res unius est propria Caesaris (id. 11), this exploit belongs to Caesar Alone.
 - obiūrgātionēs etiam non numquam incidunt necessāriae (Off. i. 136), occasions for rebuke also sometimes occur which are unavoidable.
- f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated by placing the pairs either (1) in the same order (anaphora) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (chiasmus):—
 - (1) rērum copia verborum copiam gignit (De Or. iii. 125), abundance of matter produces copiousness of expression.
 - (2) leges supplicio improbos afficiunt, defendunt ac tuentur bonos (Legg. ii. 13), the laws visit punishments upon the wicked, but the good they defend and protect.
- Note. Chiasmus is very common in Latin, and often seems in fact the more inartificial construction. In an artless narrative one might hear, "The women were all drowned, they saved the men."
 - non igitur ūtilitātem amīcitia sed ūtilitās amīcitiam consecūta est (Lael. 51), it is not then that friendship has followed upon advantage, but advantage upon friendship. [Here the chiasmus is only grammatical, the ideas being in the parallel order.] (See also p. 395: longissimē, minimē, proximī.)

- g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. a):
 - dē communi hominum memoriā (Tusc. i. 59), in regard to the UNIVERSAL memory of man.
- h. A favorite order with the poets is the interlocked, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other (synchysis):—

et superiecto pavidae natărunt aequore dammae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).

Note.—This is often joined with chiasmus: as,—arma nondum expiātīs ūncta cruoribus (id. ii. 1. 5).

- i. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance:
 - dictitābat sē hortulos aliquos emere velle (Off. iii. 58), he gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquos is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortulos.]
- j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words:—

consul ego quaesivi, cum vos mihi essetis in consilio (Rep. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council. falsum est id totum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.

- k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order:—
 rēs pūblica; populus Rōmānus; honōris causā; pāce tantī virī.
- NOTE.—These had, no doubt, originally an emphasis which required such an arrangement, but in the course of time have changed their shade of meaning. Thus, senātus populusque Rōmānus originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.
- l. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an emphatic place:—
 - [dīxit] vēnālīs quidem sē hortos non habēre (Off. iii. 58), [said] that he did n't have any gardens for sale, to be sure.
 - m. Kindred words often come together (figüra etymologica): ita sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit (Cat. M. 38), thus gradually, without being perceived, man's life grows old.

Special Rules

- 599. The following are special rules of arrangement: —
- a. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence. (See example, 598. f. N.)

- b. Itaque regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; enim, autem, vērō, quoque, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; quidem never first, but after the emphatic word; igitur usually second; nē...quidem include the emphatic word or words.
- c. Inquam, inquit, are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So often crēdo, opinor, and in poetry sometimes precor.
- d. (1) Prepositions (except tenus and versus) regularly precede their nouns; (2) but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive:
 - quem ad modum; quam ob rem; māgnō cum metū; omnibus cum cōpiīs; nūllā in rē (cf. § 598. i).
- e. In the arrangement of clauses, the Relative clause more often comes first in Latin, and usually contains the antecedent noun:
 - quos amisimus civis, eos Martis vis perculit (Marc. 17), those citizens whom we have lost, etc.
- f. Personal or demonstrative pronouns tend to stand together in the sentence:—

cum vos mihi essetis in consilio (Rep. iii. 28), when you attended me in counsel.

Structure of the Period

600. Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by *inflection* rather than by *position*. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence $as\ a$ whole, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, as in the following passage:—

High on a throne of royal state, which far Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind, Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold, Satan exalted sat.—Paradise Lost, ii. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated.

- 601. In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed:—
- a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one:—

Hannibal cum recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est (Liv. xxi. 21), when Hannibal had reviewed the auxiliaries, he set out for Cadiz.

- Volsci exiguam spem in armis, aliā undique abscissā, cum tentāssent, praeter cētera adversa, locō quoque inīquō ad pūgnam congressī, inīquiōre ad fugam, cum ab omnī parte caederentur, ad precēs ā certāmine versī dēditō imperātōre trāditīsque armīs, sub iugum missī, cum singulīs vestīmentīs, īgnōminiae clādisque plēnī dīmittuntur (Liv. iv. 10). [Here the main fact is the return of the Volscians. But the striking circumstances of the surrender etc., which in English would be detailed in a number of brief independent sentences, are put into the several subordinate clauses within the main clause so that the paṣṣage gives a complete picture in one sentence.]
- b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind of the speaker; so, usually, cause before result; purpose, manner, and the like, before the act.
- c. In coördinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (asyndeton). In such cases the connection is made clear by some antithesis indicated by the position of words.
- d. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned. But such change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure,—the less important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles or of subordinate phrases:
 - quem ut barbarī incendium effügisse vīdērunt, tēlīs ēminus missīs interfēcērunt (Nep. Alc. 10), when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, they threw darts at him at long range and killed him.
 - celeriter confecto negotio, in hiberna legiones reduxit (B. G. vi. 3), the matter was soon finished, and he led the legions, etc.
- e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it, is avoided unless a different case is required:
 - dolorem si non potuero frangere occultabo (Phil. xii. 21), if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide it. [Cf. if I cannot conquer I will hide the pain.]
- f. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succession of long and short syllables. Thus,
 - quod scis nihil prodest, quod nescis multum obest (Or. 166), what you know is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.
- Note. In rhetorical writing, particularly in oratory, the Romans, influenced by their study of the Greek orators, gave more attention to this matter than in other forms of composition. Quintilian (ix. 4. 72) lays down the general rule that a clause should not open with the beginning of a verse or close with the end of one.

PROSODY

QUANTITY

602. The poetry of the Indo-European people seems originally to have been somewhat like our own, depending on accent for its metre and disregarding the natural quantity of syllables. The Greeks, however, developed a form of poetry which, like music, pays close attention to the natural quantity of syllables; and the Romans borrowed their metrical forms in classical times from the Greeks. Hence Latin poetry does not depend, like ours, upon accent and rhyme; but is measured, like musical strains, by the length of syllables. Especially does it differ from our verse in not regarding the prose accent of the words, but substituting for that an entirely different system of metrical accent or ictus (see § 611. a). This depends upon the character of the measure used, falling at regular intervals of time on a long syllable or its equivalent. Each syllable is counted as either long or short in Quantity; and a long syllable is generally reckoned equal in length to two short ones (for exceptions, see § 608. c-e).

The quantity of radical (or stem) syllables—as of short a in pater or of long a in mater—can be learned only by observation and practice, unless determined by the general rules of quantity. Most of these rules are only arbitrary formulas devised to assist the memory; the syllables being long or short because the ancients pronounced them so. The actual practice of the Romans in regard to the quantity of syllables is ascertained chiefly from the usage of the poets; but the ancient grammarians give some assistance, and in some inscriptions long vowels are distinguished in various ways,—by the apex, for instance, or by doubling (§ 10. e. n.).

Since Roman poets borrow very largely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Greek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordance with the Greek, and not the Latin, laws of quantity. Where these laws vary in any important point, the variations will be noticed in the rules below.

GENERAL RULES

603. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. §§ 9-11):

Quantity of Vowels

- a. Vowels. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, trăhō.
- Exceptions. —1. In the genitive form -ius, \bar{i} is long: as, utrius, nüllius. It is, however, sometimes short in verse (§ 113. c).
- 2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, e is long between two vowels: as, die; otherwise usually short, as in fidei, rei, spei.
- Note. It was once long in these also: as, plēnus fidēi (Ennius, at the end of a hexameter). A is also long before i in the old genitive of the first declension: as, aulāi.
- 3. In the conjugation of fio, i is long except when followed by er. Thus, fio, fiebam, fiam, but fieri, fierem; so also fit (§ 606. a. 3).
- 4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, Trões (Τρῶες), Thalia (Θαλεῖα), hērōas (ἤρωας), āēr (ἄηρ).

Note. — But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect: as, Acadēmia, chorēa, Malea, platea.

- 5. In dius, in theu usually, and sometimes in Diana and the, the first vowel is long.
 - b. Diphthongs. A Diphthong is long: as, foedus, cui, aula.

Exception. — The preposition prae in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, praë-ustis (Aen. vii. 524), praë-eunte (id. v. 186).

Note.—U following q, s, or g, does not make a diphthong with a following vowel (see § 5. n. 2). For 4-iō, m4-ior, p6-ior, etc., see § 11. d and n.

c. Contraction. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as, nil, from nihil; cogo for †co-ago; mālo for mā-volo.

Note. — Two vowels of different syllables may be run together without full contraction (synizēsis, § 642): as, deinde (for deinde), moos (for meos); and often two syllables are united by Synæresis (§ 642) without contraction: as when parietibus is pronounced paryetibus.

d. A vowel before ns, nf, gn, is long: as, īnstō, īnfāns, sīgnum.

Quantity of Syllables

- e. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong: as, cā-rus, ō-men, foe-dus.
- f. Position. A syllable is long by position if its vowel, though short, is followed by two consonants or a double consonant: as, adventus, cortex.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by 1 or r the syllable may be either long or short (common); as, alacris or alacris; patris or patris.

Vowels should be pronounced long or short in accordance with their natural quantity without regard to the length of the syllable by position.

Note 1.—The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels before a word beginning with two consonants.

Note 2.—A syllable is long if its vowel is followed by consonant i (except in blingis, quadrlingis): see § 11. d.

Note 3.—Compounds of iacio, though written with one i, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and, if the vowel of the preposition is short, the first syllable is long by position on the principle of § 11. e.

obicis hosti (at the end of a hexameter, Aen. iv. 549).

inicit et saltū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Aen. ix. 552).

proice tela manu (at the beginning of a hexameter, Aen. vi. 836).

Later poets sometimes shorten the preposition in trisyllabic forms, and prepositions ending in a vowel are sometimes contracted as if the verb began with a vowel:

- (1) cūr an nos obi cis (Claud. iv C. H. 264).
- (2) reice că pellas (Ecl. iii. 96, at end).

Note 4. — The y or w sound resulting from synæresis (§ 642) has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, abietis (abyetis), fluviörum (fluvyörum). Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, silvae, for silvae.

¹ Rarely dissyllabic cui (as Mart. i. 104. 22).

FINAL SYLLABLES

- 604. The Quantity of Final Syllables is as follows:—
- a. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, tū, hī, nē.
- 1. The attached particles -ně, -quě, -vě, -cě, -ptě, and rě- (rěd-) are short; sē- (sēd-) and dī- are long. Thus, sēcēdit, sēditiō, exercitumquě rědūcit, dīmittō. But re- is often long in rēligiō (relligiō), rētulī (rettulī), rēpulī (reppulī).
- b. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sol, os (oris), bos, par, vas (vasis), ver, vis.

Exceptions. — cor, fel, lac, mel, os (ossis), vas (vadis), vir, tot, quot.

- c. Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, ăn, în, cis, něc. But crās, cūr, ēn, nôn, quin, sin with adverbs in c: as, hic, hūc, sic are long.
- d. Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final a is long. Thus, ex stellă (nominative), cum ex stellă (ablative); früstra, vocă (imperative), postea, trigintă.

Exceptions. — šiž, itž, quiž, putž (suppose); and, in late use, trīgintž etc.

e. Final e is short: as in nube, ducite, saepe.

Exceptions. — Final e is long — 1. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, altē, longē, miserē, apertē, saepissimē. So ferē, fermē.

But it is short in bene, male; inferne, superne.

- 2. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fide (also fame), facie, hodie, quare (qua re).
- 3. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, cētē; and in some other Greek words: Phoebē, Circē, Andromachē, etc.
 - 4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, vide.

But sometimes cave, habe, tace, vale, vide (cf. § 629. b. 1).

f. Final i is long: as in turrī, fīlī, audī.

Exceptions. — Final i is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisi, quasi, sīcuti, cui (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives: as, Alexi.

g. Final o is common: but long in datives and ablatives; also in nouns of the third declension. It is almost invariably long in verbs before the time of Ovid.

Exceptions. — citŏ, modŏ (dummodŏ), immŏ, profectŏ, egŏ, duŏ, cedŏ (the imperative); so sometimes octŏ, īlicŏ, etc., particularly in later writers.

- h. Final u is long. Final y is short.
- i. Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys, are short: as, nefās, rūpēs, servōs (accusative), honōs; hostīs, amīcus, Tethys.

Exceptions. — 1. as is short in Greek plural accusatives: as, lampadas; and in anas.

- 2. es is short in the nominative of nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem 1: as, miles (-Itis), obses (-Idis), except abies, aries, paries, pes; in the present of esse (es, ades); in the preposition penes, and in the plural of Greek nouns: as, heroes, lampades.
- 3. os is short in compos, impos; in the Greek nominative ending: as, barbitos; in the old nominative of the second declension: as, servos (later servus).
 - 4. is in plural cases is long: as in bonis, nobis, vobis, omnis (accusative plural).
- 5. is is long in the verb forms fis, sis, vis (with quivis etc.), velis, mālīs, nolis, edis; in the second person singular of the present indicative active in the fourth conjugation: as, audīs; and sometimes in the forms in -eris (future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive).
- 6. us is long in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having ū (long) in the stem: as, virtūs (-ūtis), incūs (-ūdis). But pecus, -ŭdis.
- j. Of other final syllables, those ending in a single consonant are short. Thus, amat, amatur; donec, fac, procul, iubar.

Exceptions. — hīc (also hīc); allēc; the ablatives illōc, etc.; certain adverbs in -c: as, illīc, istūc; liēn, and some Greek nouns: as, āēr, aethēr, crātēr.

Perfects and Perfect Participles

605. Perfects and Perfect Participles of two syllables have the first syllable long: as, iūvī, iūtum (iŭvō), vīdī, vīsum (vǐdeō); fūgī (fǔgiō); vēnī (věniō).

Exceptions. — bībī, dědī, fīdī, scidī, stětī, stitī, tüli; cītum, dătum, ītum, lītum, quītum, rătum, rūtum, sătum, sītum, stătum. In some compounds of stō, stātum is found (long), as praestātum.

a. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the vowel of the following syllable is, also, usually short: as, cecidi (cado), didici (disco), pupugi (pungo), cucurri (curro), tetendi (tendo), momordi (mordeo). But cecidi from caedo, pepedi from pedo.

Derivatives

- 606. Rules for the Quantity of Derivatives are: —
- a. Forms from the same stem have the same quantity: as, amo, amavisti; genus, generis.

Exceptions. — 1. bos, lar, mas, par, pes, sal, — also arbos, — have a long vowel in the nominative, though the stem-vowel is short (cf. genitive bovis etc.).

1 The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.

- 2. Nouns in -or, genitive -ōris, have the vowel shortened before the final r: as, honor. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in early Latin these nominatives are often found long.)
- 3. Verb-forms with vowel originally long regularly shorten it before final m, r, or t: as, amem, amer, dicerer, amet (compare amemus), diceret, audit, fit.

Note. — The final syllable in t of the perfect was long in old Latin, but is short in the classic period.

- 4. A few long stem-syllables are shortened: as, ācer, ăcerbus. So dē-iĕrō and pē-iĕrō, weakened from iūrō.
- **b.** Forms from the same root often show inherited variations of vowel quantity (see § 17): as, dīcō (cf. maledĭcus); dūcō (dŭx, dŭcis); fīdō (perfīdus); vōx, vōcis (vŏcō); lēx, lēgis (lěgō).
- c. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oc-cidō (cădō), oc-cidō (caedō), in-iquus (aequus).

Note. — Greek words compounded with $\pi\rho\delta$ have o short: as, propheta, prologus. Some Latin compounds of pro have o short: as, proficiscor, profiteor. Compounds with ne vary: as, nego, nequeo, nequam.

RHYTHM

607. The essence of Rhythm in poetry is the regular recurrence of syllables pronounced with more stress than those intervening. To produce this effect in its perfection, precisely equal times should occur between the recurrences of the stress. But, in the application of rhythm to words, the exactness of these intervals is sacrificed somewhat to the necessary length of the words; and, on the other hand, the words are forced somewhat in their pronunciation, to produce more nearly the proper intervals of time. In different languages these adaptations take place in different degrees; one language disregarding more the intervals of time, another the pronunciation of the words.

The Greek language early developed a very strict rhythmical form of poetry, in which the intervals of time were all-important. The earliest Latin, on the other hand, — as in the Saturnian and Fescennine verse, — was not so restricted. But the purely metrical forms were afterwards adopted from the Greek, and supplanted the native forms of verse. Thus the Latin poetry with which we have to do follows for the most part Greek rules, which require the formal division of words (like music) into measures of equal times, technically called Feet. The strict rhythm was doubtless more closely followed in poetry that was sung than in that which was declaimed or intoned. In neither language, however, is the time perfectly preserved, even in single measures; and there are some cases in which the regularity of the time between the ictuses is disturbed.

The Greeks and Romans distinguished syllables of two kinds in regard to the time required for their pronunciation, a long syllable having twice the metrical value of a short one. But it must not be supposed that all long syllables were of equal length, or even that in a given passage each long had just twice the length of the contiguous shorts. The ratio was only approximate at best, though necessarily more exact in singing than in recitation. Nor are longs and shorts the only forms of syllables that are found. In some cases a long syllable was protracted, so as to have the time of three or even of four shorts, and often one long or two shorts were pronounced in less than their proper time, though they were perhaps distinguishable in time from one

short (see § 608. c, d). Sometimes a syllable naturally short seems to have been slightly prolonged, so as to represent a long, though in most (not all) cases the apparent irregularity can be otherwise explained. In a few cases, also, a pause takes the place of one or more syllables to fill out the required length of the measure. This could, of course, take place only at the end of a word: hence the importance of Casura and Diæresis in prosody (§ 611. b, c).

Measures

608. Rhythm consists of the division of musical sound into equal intervals of time called Measures or Feet.

The most natural division of musical time is into measures consisting of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five equal parts.

NOTE. — The divisions of musical time are marked by a stress of voice on one or the other part of the measure. This stress is called the Ictus (beat), or metrical accent (see $\S 611. a$).

- a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a Mora. It is represented by the sign \cup , or in musical notation by the eighth note or quaver (?).
- b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two more, and is represented by the sign _, or by the quarter note or crotchet ().
- c. A long syllable may be protracted, so as to occupy the time of three or four moræ. Such a syllable, if equal to three moræ, is represented by the sign \sqsubseteq (or dotted quarter \nearrow); if equal to four, by \sqsubseteq (or the half note or minim, \nearrow).
- d. A long syllable may be contracted, so as to take practically the time of a short one. Such a syllable is sometimes represented by the sign >.
 - e. A short syllable may be contracted so as to occupy less than one mora.
- f. A pause sometimes occurs at the end of a verse or a series of verses, to fill up the time. A pause of one mora in a measure is indicated by the sign \wedge ; one of two moræ by the sign $\overline{\wedge}$.
- g. One or more syllables are sometimes placed before the proper beginning of the measure. Such syllables are called an Anacrūsis or prelude.

The anacrusis is regularly equal to the unaccented part of the measure.

¹ The same thing occurs in modern poetry, and in modern music any unaccented syllables at the beginning are treated as an anacrusis, i.e. they make an incomplete measure before the first bar. This was not the case in ancient music. The ancients seem to have treated any unaccented syllable at the beginning as belonging to the following accented ones, so as to make with them a foot or measure. Thus it would seem that there was an original form of Indo-European poetry which was iambic in its structure, or which, at least, accented the second syllable rather than the first.

609. The feet most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following: —

a. Triple or Unequal Measures (3/8)1

- 1. Trochee $(\angle \bigcirc = \bigcirc)$: as, $r\bar{e}g$ is.
- 2. Iambus (= = = : as, dŭcēs.
- 3. Tribrach² ($\cup \cup \cup = \bigcirc$): as, hŏmĭnĭs.

b. Double or Equal Measures (2)

- 1. Dactyl (_ U U = P P): as, consults.
- 2. Anapæst (U U = = (): as, mŏnĭtōs.
- 3. Spondee (_ _ = \(\bigcup_{\bigcup} \): as, $r\bar{e}g\bar{e}s$.

c. Six-timed Measures (3)

- 1. Ionic ā mâiore (_ _ v v = p p p): as, confecerat.
- 3. Choriambus (_ \cup \cup _ = \bigcup \bigcup): as, cont\tilerant.

d. Quinary or Hemiolic 8 Measures (5)

- 1. Cretic (_ \cup _ = \bigcup \bigcup): as, consules.
- 2. Pæon primus (_ U U U = P P): as, consulibus.
- 3. Pæon quārtus ($\cup \cup \cup = = \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$): as, ŭiněrī.
- 4. Bacchīus ($\smile _$ = $\frown \frown$): as, ămīcōs.

¹ Called diplasic, the two parts (Thesis and Arsis) being in the ratio of 2 to 1.

² Not found as a fundamental foot, but only as the resolution of a Trochee or Iambus.

⁸ Called hemiolic, the two parts being in the ratio of 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$, or of 2 to 3.

Note. — Several compound feet are mentioned by the grammarians, viz. Pyrrhic $(\cup \cup)$; Amphibrach $(\cup \cup \cup)$; Antibacchius $(\bot \bot \cup)$; Proceleusmatic $(\cup \cup \cup \cup)$; the Molossus $(\bot \bot \bot \cup)$; the 2d and 3d Pæon, having a long syllable in the 2d or 3d place, with three short ones; 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th Epitritus, having a short syllable in the 1st, 2d, 3d, or 4th place, with three long ones.

Irrational Feet

e. Feet with these apparent quantities do not always occupy equal time, but may be contracted or prolonged to suit the series in which they occur. They are then called *irrational*, because the thesis and arsis do not have their normal ratio.¹ Such are:—

Irrational Spondee:

(in place of a Trochee)
$$\angle >$$
 (in place of an Iambus) $> \angle$ or \bigcirc .

Cyclic Dactyl (in place of a Trochee):

$$\angle \omega$$
 or $\angle \omega = 1.1.1$ or $1.1.1$

Cyclic Anapæst (in place of an Iambus):

$$\omega \angle \text{ or } \omega \omega = \text{ f. f. or } \text{ or } \text{ f. }$$

The apparent dactyl $> \checkmark \cup$, as a substitute for an iambus, and the apparent anapæst $\checkmark \cup >$, as a substitute for a trochee, occur frequently in the dramatic writers.

NOTE. — Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or chant, with instrumental accompaniment; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or singing. It must be borne in mind that in ancient music — which in this differs widely from modern — the rhythm of the melody was identical with the rhythm of the text. The lyric poetry was to be sung; the poet was musician and composer, as well as author. To this day a poet is said conventionally to "sing."

Thus a correct understanding of the rhythmical structure of the verse gives us the time, though not the tune, to which it was actually sung. The exact time, however, as indicated by the succession of long and short syllables, was varied according to certain laws of so-called "Rhythmic," as will be explained below. In reading ancient verse it is necessary to bear in mind not only the variations in the relative length of syllables, but the occasional pause necessary to fill out the measure; and to remember that the rhythmical accent is the only one of importance, though the words should be distinguished carefully, and the sense preserved. Poetry should not be scanned, but read metrically.

¹ It seems probable that both thesis and arsis of an irrational foot were affected by the necessity of preserving the rhythmical time of the foot.

Substitution

610. In many cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short syllables the place of a long one.

In the former case the measure is said to be contracted; in the latter, to be resolved:—

- Anapæst (UUU); and a Tribrach (UUU) may take the place of a Trochee (UUU) or an Iambus (UUU). The optional substitution of one long syllable for two short ones is represented by the sign UU.
- **b.** When a long syllable having the Ictus (§ 611. a) is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the resulting short syllables; but for convenience the mark of accent is placed on the first:—

núnc ex|périar | sítne ă|cétō | tíbi cor | ácre in | pécto|ré. — Pl. Bac. 405.

The Musical Accent

- 611. That part of the measure which receives the stress of voice (the musical accent) is called the Thesis; the unaccented part is called the Arsis.¹
- a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the Ictus (beat). It is marked thus: $\angle \cup \cup$.
- **b.** The ending of a word within a measure is called Cæsura. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called *the* Cæsura of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm.
- c. The coincidence of the end of a word with that of a measure is called Diæresis.
- 1 The Thesis signifies properly the putting down ($\theta \epsilon \sigma \iota s$, from $\tau l \theta \eta \mu \iota$, put, place) of the foot in beating time, in the march or dance ("downward beat"), and the Arsis the raising ($\delta \rho \sigma \iota s$, from $\dot{\alpha} \epsilon l \rho \omega$, raise) of the foot ("upward beat"). By the Latin grammarians these terms were made to mean, respectively, the ending and the beginning of a measure. By a misunderstanding which has prevailed till recently, since the time of Bentley, their true signification has been reversed. They will here be used in accordance with their ancient meaning, as has now become more common. This metrical accent, recurring at regular intervals of time, is what constitutes the essence of the rhythm of poetry as distinguished from prose, and should be constantly kept in mind. The error mentioned arose from applying to trochaic and dactylic verse a definition which was true only of iambic or anapæstic.

VERSIFICATION

THE VERSE

612. A single line of poetry — that is, a series of feet set in a recognized order — is called a Verse.¹

NOTE. — Most of the common verses originally consisted of two series (hemistichs), but the joint between them is often obscured. It is marked in Iambic and Trochaic Tetrameter by the Diæresis, in Dactylic Hexameter by the Cæsura.

- a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called Catalectic, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called Acatalectic, and has no such pause.
- b. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause: 2 it is then said to be long by Diastole:—

nostrorum obruimur, — oriturque miserrima caedes. — Aen. ii. 411.

c. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (syllaba anceps).

Scansion and Elision

d. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called scanning or scansion (scansio, a climbing or advance by steps, from scando).

NOTE. — In reading verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in scanning.

e. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called Elision (bruising).³

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

- ¹ The word Verse (versus) signifies a turning back, i.e. to begin again in like manner, as opposed to Prose (prorsus or proversus), which means straight ahead.
- ² This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears to be found being caused by the retention of an originally long quantity.
- * The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets:—

To inveigle and invite th' unwary sense. — Comus 538.

In early Latin poetry a final syllable ending in s often loses this letter even before a consonant (cf. § 15.7):—

seniō confectus quiescit.—Enn. (Cat. M. 14).

NOTE.—Elision is sometimes called by the Greek name Synalcepha (smearing). Rarely a syllable is elided at the end of a verse when the next verse begins with a vowel: this is called Synapheia (binding).

f. A final m, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or h: this is called Ecthlipsis (squeezing out):—

mönstr^{um} horrend^{um}, inform^e, ingens, cui lümen ademptum.

— Aen. iii. 658.

- Note 1. Final m has a feeble nasal sound, so that its partial suppression before the initial vowel of the following word was easy.
- Note 2.—The monosyllables do, dem, spē, spem, sim, sto, stem, quī (plural), and monosyllabic interjections are never elided; nor is an iambic word elided in dactylic verse. Elision is often evaded by skilful collocation of words.
- g. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called Hiatus (gaping).

NOTE. — The final vowel is sometimes shortened in such cases.

FORMS OF VERSE

613. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental foot: as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, Hexameter, Tetrameter, Trimeter, Dimeter.

Note. — Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodia), so that six Iambi make a Trimeter.

614. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

Many stanzas are named after some eminent poet: as, Sapphic (from Sappho), Alcaic (from Alcæus), Archilochian (from Archilochus), Horatian (from Horace), and so on.

DACTYLIC VERSE

Dactylic Hexameter

615. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:—



NOTE. — The last foot is usually said to be a spondee, but is in reality a trochee standing for a dactyl, since the final syllable is not measured.

- a. For any foot, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted.
- b. Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth foot; the verse is then called spondaic and usually ends with a word of four syllables.

Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ends with incrementum.

- c. The hexameter has regularly one principal casura sometimes two almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.
- 1. The principal cæsura is usually after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts in sense and rhythm. See examples in d.
- 2. It may also be after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another cæsura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts:—

pártě fě|róx || ār|dénsque ŏcŭ|lís || et | síbílă | cóllă. — Aen. v. 277.

Note. — Often the only indication of the *principal* among a number of cæsuras is the break in the sense.

A cæsura occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A cæsura occurring after the second syllable of a foot is called *feminine* (as in the fifth foot of the third and fourth verses in d). A cæsura may also be found in any foot of the verse, but a proper cæsural pause could hardly occur in the first or sixth.

When the fourth foot ends a word, the break (properly a diæresis) is sometimes improperly called bucolic cæsura, from its frequency in pastoral poetry.

d. The first seven verses of the Æneid, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal cæsura in each verse is marked by double lines:—

Armă vi|rumquě că|nō || Trō|iae qui | prīmus ăb | ōrīs Ītăli|am fā|tō prŏfu|gus || Lā|vīniāquě | vēnit lītŏră, | mult^{um} il|le et ter|rīs || iac|tātus et | altō vī supě|rum || sae|vae měmŏ|rem lū|nōnis ŏb | īrām; multă quŏ|que et bel|lō pas|sus || dum | conděrět | urběm, īnfer|retquě dě|ōs Lăti|ō, || gěnus | undě Lă|tīnum, Albā|nīquě pă|trēs, || at|que altae | moeniă | Rōmae.

1. The feminine cæsura is seen in the following: —

Dīs gěni|tī pötů|ērě : || tě|nent mědi|a omniă| silvae. — Aen. vi. 131.

NOTE. — The Hexameter is thus illustrated in English verse: —

Over the sea, past Crete, on the Syrian shore to the southward, Dwells in the well-tilled lowland a dark-haired Æthiop people, Skilful with needle and loom, and the arts of the dyer and carver, Skilful, but feeble of heart; for they know not the lords of Olympus, Lovers of men; neither broad-browed Zeus, nor Pallas Athené, Teacher of wisdom to heroes, bestower of might in the battle; Share not the cunning of Hermes, nor list to the songs of Apollo, Fearing the stars of the sky, and the roll of the blue salt water.

-Kingsley's Andromeda.

Elegiac Stanza

616. The Elegiac Stanza consists of two verses, — a Hexameter followed by a Pentameter.¹

The Pentameter verse is the same as the Hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot:—



- a. The Pentameter verse is therefore to be scanned as two half-verses, the second of which always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.
- **b.** The Pentameter has no regular Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word (diæresis, § 611. c), which is followed by a pause to complete the measure.²
 - c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza:—

cum sŭbît | illī|us || trīs|tissîmă | noctis ĭ|māgō
quā mihi | suprē|mum \(\times \) || tempŭs in | urbĕ fŭ|it, \(\times \)
cum rĕpĕ|tō noc|tem || quā | tot mihi | cāră rĕ|līquī,
lābitŭr | ex ŏcŭ|līs \(\times \) || nunc quŏquĕ | guttă mĕ|īs. \(\times \)
iam prŏpĕ | lūx ădĕ|rat || quā | mē dis|cēdĕrĕ | Caesar
fīnībŭs | extrē|mae \(\times \) || iussĕrăt | Ausŏni|ae. \(\times \)
— Ov. Trist. i. 3.

Note. — The Elegiac Stanza differs widely in character from hexameter verse (of which it is a mere modification) by its division into Distichs, each of which must have its own sense complete. It is employed in a great variety of compositions, — epistolary, amatory, and mournful, — and was especially a favorite of the poet Ovid. It has been illustrated in English verse, imitated from the German: —

In the Hex|ameter | rises || the | fountain's | silvery | column; In the Pen|tameter | aye || falling in | melody | back.

Other Dactylic Verses

- 617. Other dactylic verses or half-verses are occasionally used by the lyric poets.
- 1 Called pentameter by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapæsts), as follows:—

2 The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the protraction of the preceding syllable:—

a. The Dactylic Tetrameter alternates with the hexameter, forming the Alcmanian Strophe, as follows:—

ō for tēs pê i ōrăquě | passi
mēcum | saepě vi | ri, | | nunc | vinō | pellitě | cūrās;
crās in | gēns itě | rābimus | aequòr.
— Hor. Od. i. 7 (so 28; Ep. 12).

b. The Dactylic Penthemim (five half-feet) consists of half a pentameter verse. It is used in combination with the Hexameter to form the First Archilochian Strophe:—

diffu|gēre ni|vēs, || rede|unt iam | grāmină | campis, arbori|busque co|mae; mutat | terră vi|cēs || et | dēcres|centiă | ripās flumină | praetere|unt. — Hor. Od. iv. 7.

For the Fourth Archilochian Strophe (Archilochian heptameter, alternating with iambic trimeter catalectic), see § 626. 11.

IAMBIC VERSE

Iambic Trimeter

618. The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus (iambic dipody). The cæsura is usually in the third foot.

Note. — The sign $\geq \angle$ denotes possible substitution of an irrational spondee (> \angle) for an iambus ($\vee \angle$).

- a. The Iambic Trimeter is often used in lyric poetry (1) as an independent system, or (2) alternating with the Dimeter to form the *Iambic Strophe*, as follows:—
 - (1) iam i^{am} éffícá|cī || dố mặnús | sciéntiaé suppléx ět ố|rō || régnă pér | Prŏsérpinaé, pěr ét Diá|nae || nốn mŏvén|dă númină, pěr átquě líb|rōs || cárminúm | văléntiúm dēfíxă caé|lō || dévŏcá|rĕ sídĕrá, Cănídiă, pár|cĕ || vốcibús | tandém săcrís, citúmquĕ rét|rŏ || rétrŏ sól|vĕ túrbiném. Hor. Epod. 17.

The last two lines may be thus translated, to show the movement in English:—

Oh! stay, Canidia, stay thy rites of sorcery, Thy charm unbinding backward let thy swift wheel fly!

- (2) běátůs fi|lě || quí procůl | něgótřís,
 ut príscă géns | mortálřům,
 pătérnă rú|ră || búbůs éx|ercét sůís,
 sölůtůs om|nī fénoré;
 něque éxcitá|tur || clássicó | milés trucí,
 něque horrět í|rātům măré. Hor. Epod. 2.
- **b.** In the stricter form of lambic Trimeter an irrational spondee $(> \angle)$ or its equivalent (a cyclic anapæst $\smile \angle$ or an apparent dactyl $> \angle \cup$, \S 609. e) may be regularly substituted for the first iambus of any dipody. A tribrach $(\smile \angle \cup \cup)$ may stand for an iambus anywhere except in the last place. In the comic poets any of these forms or the proceleusmatic $(\smile \cup \cup)$ may be substituted in any foot except the last:—1

ō lúcis ál|mĕ réctŏr || ét | caelí dĕcús! qu^ī altérnă cúr|rū spắtĭă || flám|mĭfĕrō ámbĭéns, illústrĕ laé|tīs || éxsĕrís | terrís căpút.

- Sen. Herc. Fur. 592-94.

quid quaeris? an nos || sexagin tā natus es.

— Ter. Haut. 62.

homó sum: hūmá|nī || níl ā mē álĭ|ēnúm pǔtó. vel mé moné|re hoc || vel percon|tārí pǔtá.

-id. 77, 78.

c. The Choliambic (lame Iambic) substitutes a trochee for the last iambus:—

aequē ést běá|tůs || ác pčé|mă cúm scríbit: tam gaúdět ín | sē, || támquě sē íp|sě mírátůr.

- Catull. xxiii. 15, 16.

Note. — The verse may also be regarded as trochaic with anacrusis: as, —

d. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic is represented as follows:—

It is used in combination with other measures (see § 626. 11), and is shown in the following:—

Vulcánus ár|dēns || úrit óf|ficínás. — Hor. Od. i. 4.

or in English: -

On purple peaks a deeper shade descending. — Scott.

¹ The greater freedom of substitution in the comedy is due to the fact that the verse is regarded as made up of separate feet rather than of dipodies.

Other Iambic Measures

- 619. Other forms of Iambic verse are the following: —
- a. The Iambic Tetrameter Catalectic (Septēnārius). This consists of seven and a half iambic feet, with diæresis after the fourth and with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter:—

n^{am} idcírc^ō arcés|sor, núptiás || quod mⁱ ádpărá|rī sénsit. quibus quidem quam fáci|le pótuerát || quiéscī sⁱ híc | quiésset! — Ter. And. 690, 691.

The metrical scheme of these two verses may be represented as follows: —

$$\| > \angle > \angle | > \angle | > \angle \cup | > \angle \cup | > \angle \cup | > \angle \cup | > X \|$$

$$\| \sim (1) > (1) > (1) > (2) > (3) > (3) > (4) >$$

Its movement is like the following: —

In góod king Chárles's gólden daýs, when lóyaltý no hárm meant.
— Vicar of Bray.

b. The Iambic Tetrameter Acatalectic (Octōnārius). This consists of eight full iambic feet with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter. Like the Septenarius it is used in lively dialogue:—

dīcāt ĕam dắrĕ | nōs Phórmǐó|nī || nū́ptum nế | suscénsĕắt; et mắgĭs esse fl|lum ĭdốnĕum, || qu i ipsí sit fắmĭ|lĭárĭốr.

— Ter. Ph. 720, 721.

The metrical scheme of these two verses may be represented as follows:

- c. The Iambic Dimeter. This may be either acatalectic or catalectic.
- 1. The Iambic Dimeter Acatalectic consists of four iambic feet. It is used in combination with some longer verse (see § 618. a).
- 2. The Iambic Dimeter Catalectic consists of three and a half iambic feet. It is used only in choruses:—

quōnám crǔén|tă Maénās, praecéps ămố|rĕ saévō, răpĭtúr quŏd ím|pŏténtī făcĭnús părát | fǔrốrĕ?—Sen. Med. 850-853.

Note. — Owing to the fact that in modern music each measure begins with a downward beat, some scholars regard all these forms of Iambic verse as Trochaic verse with anacrusis (§ 618. c. n.).

TROCHAIC VERSE

620. The most common form of Trochaic verse is the Tetrameter Catalectic (Septēnārius), consisting of four dipodies, the last of which lacks a syllable. There is regularly diæresis after the fourth foot:—

In musical notation: —

ád t^ē advéniō, spém, sălūtem, || consilium, auxilium éxpeténs.
— Ter. And. 319.

In English verse: -

Téll me nót in moúrnful númbers || lífe is bút an émpty dreám.
— Longfellow.

a. In the stricter form of the Septenarius substitutions are allowed only in the even feet, but in comedy the tribrach $\checkmark \lor \lor \lor$, or an irrational spondee $\angle \gt$, cyclic dactyl $\angle \smile$, or apparent anapæst $\checkmark \lor \gt$, may be substituted for any of the first six feet; a tribrach for the seventh:—

ítid^{em} habét pěta|s^{um} ác vestítum: || tám consímilist | átqu^e egő. súra, pés, sta|túra, tónsus, || óculī, násum, | vél labra, málae, méntum, | bárba, cóllus; || tótus! quíd ver|bís opust? sí tergúm ci|cátricósum, || nihíl hoc símilist | símilius.

—Pl. Am. 443-446.

The metrical scheme of these four verses is as follows:—

b. The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic (Octonārius), consisting of four complete dipodies, occurs in the lyrical parts of comedy.

Substitutions as in the Septenarius are allowed except in the last foot.

c. Some other forms of trochaic verse are found in the lyric poets, in combination with other feet, either as whole lines or parts of lines:—

nốn ĕbúr nĕ|que aúrĕům. [Dimeter Catalectic.] meá rĕní|dĕt ín dŏmó | lăcúnár. [Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.] — Hor. Od. ii. 18.

MIXED MEASURES

621. Different measures may be combined in the same verse in two different ways. Either (1) a series of one kind is simply joined to a series of another kind (compare the changes of rhythm not uncommon in modern music); or (2) single feet of other measures are combined with the prevailing measures, in which case these odd feet are adapted by changing their quantity so that they become *irrational* (see § 609. e).

When enough measures of one kind occur to form a series, we may suppose a change of rhythm; when they are isolated, we must suppose adaptation. Of the indefinite number of possible combinations but few are found in Latin poetry.

- 622. The following verses, combining different rhythmical series, are found in Latin lyrical poetry:—
 - 1. Greater Archilochian (Dactylic Tetrameter; Trochaic Tripody):—

$$\| \angle \infty \| \angle \infty \| \angle \infty \| \angle \infty \| \angle \cup \| \angle \cup \| \angle \cup \| \angle \cup \|$$

sólvítůr | ácris hi|éms grā|tá vice || véris | ét Fă|vóni. — Hor. Od. i. 4.

Note. — It is possible that the dactyls were cyclic; but the change of measure seems more probable.

2. Verse consisting of Dactylic Trimeter catalectic (Dactylic Penthemim); Iambic Dimeter:—

scríběrě | vérsicŭ|lós || ămốrě pér|culsúm grăví. — Hor. Epod. 11. 2.

LOGACEDIC VERSE

- 623. Trochaic verses, containing in regular prescribed positions irrational measures or irrational feet (cf. § 609. e), are called Logacedic. The principal logacedic forms are—
 - 1. Logacedic Tetrapody (four feet): GLYCONIC.
- 2. Logacedic Tripody (three feet): Pherecratic (often treated as a syncopated Tetrapody Catalectic).
- 3. Logacedic Dipody (two feet): this may be regarded as a short Pherecratic.

Note. — This mixture of irrational measures gives an effect approaching that of prose: hence the name Logacedic ($\lambda \delta \gamma o_s$, $\delta o_s \delta \delta$). These measures originated in the Greek lyric poetry, and were adopted by the Romans. All the Roman lyric metres not belonging to the regular iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or Ionic systems, were constructed on the basis of the three forms given above: viz., Logacedic systems consisting respectively of four, three, and two feet. The so-called Logacedic Pentapody consists of five feet, but is to be regarded as composed of two of the others.

624. Each logacedic form contains a single dactyl, which may be either in the first, second, or third place. The verse may be catalectic or acatalectic:—

- 625. The verses constructed upon the several Logacedic forms or models are the following:—
 - 1. Glyconic (Second Glyconic, catalectic): —

$$\| \langle \rangle | \langle$$

Rómae | príncipis | úrbi|úm.

In English:—

Fórms more réal than líving mán. — Shelley.

NOTE. — In this and most of the succeeding forms the foot preceding the dactyl is always irrational in Horace, consisting of an irrational spondee (__>).

2. Aristophanic (First Pherecratic):

témpěrăt | óră | frénis. — Hor. Od. i. 8.

Note. — It is very likely that this was made equal in time to the preceding by protracting the last two syllables:—

¹ Different Greek poets adopted fixed types in regard to the place of the dactyls, and so a large number of verses arose, each following a strict law, which were imitated by the Romans as distinct metres.

3. Adonic (First Pherecratic, shortened):—

Térrüit | úrběm. — Hor.

Or perhaps: -

4. Pherecratic (Second Pherecratic):—

crás donáběris haédó. - Hor.

Often scanned as follows: --

5. Lesser Asclepiadic (Second Pherecratic with syncope and First Pherecratic catalectic):—

$$|| \angle > | \angle \cup | \angle || \angle \cup | \angle \cup | \underline{\smile} \wedge ||$$

Maécēnás ătăvís édítě régibús. — Hor.

6. Greater Asclepiadic (the same as 5, with a syncopated Logazdic Dipody interposed):—

7. Lesser Sapphic (Logaædic Pentapody, with dactyl in the third place):—

$$|| \angle \cup | \angle > | \angle || \cup | \angle \cup | \angle | \preceq \wedge ||$$
 íntěgér vitaé scělěrísquě půrůs. — Hor.

Or in English: -

Brilliant hópes, all woven in górgeous tíssues. — Longfellow.

vírgĭnībús pŭĕrisquĕ cántō. — Hor.

10. Greater Alcaic (Logaædic Pentapody, catalectic, with anacrusis, and dactyl in the third place, — compare Lesser Sapphic):—

$$\| \geq : \angle \cup | \angle > \| \angle \cup | \angle \cup | \preceq \wedge \|$$

iūst^{um} ét těnácem || prốpŏsĭtí vĭrům. — Hor.

Note. — Only the above logacedic forms are employed by Horace.

11. Phalæcean (Logaædic Pentapody, with dactyl in the second place):-

In English:—

Gorgeous flowerets in the sunlight shining. — Longfellow.

12. Glyconic Pherecratic (Second Glyconic with syncope, and Second Pherecratic):—

METRES OF HORACE

- 626. The Odes of Horace include nineteen varieties of stanza.

 These are:—
- 1. Alcaic, consisting of two Greater Alcaics (10), one Trochaic Dimeter with anacrusis, and one Lesser Alcaic (9)¹:—

iūst^{um} ét tenácem || próposití virúm nōn cívi^{um} árdor || práva iubéntiúm, nōn vúltus ínstantís tyránnī ménte quatít solidá, nequ^e Aúster.—Od. iii. 3.

(Found in Od. i. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv. 4, 9, 14, 15.)

Note. — The Alcaic Strophe is named after the Greek poet Alcæus of Lesbos, and was a special favorite with Horace, of whose Odes thirty-seven are in this form. It is sometimes called the *Horatian Stanza*.

2. Sapphic (minor), consisting of three Lesser Sapphics (7) and one Adonic (3):—

iám satís terrís || nivis átque dírae grándinís mīsít || pater ét rubénte déxterá sacrás || iaculátus árcīs térruit úrbem. — Od. i. 2.

(Found in Od. i. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv. 2, 6, 11; Carm. Saec.)

1 The figures refer to the foregoing list (§ 625).

Note. — The Sapphic Stanza is named after the poetess Sappho of Lesbos, and was a great favorite with the ancients. It is used by Horace in twenty-five Odes—more frequently than any other except the Alcaic.

3. Sapphic (major), consisting of one Aristophanic (2) and one Greater Sapphic (8):—

Lýdia dfc, per ómnís

té deós öró, Sybarín || cúr properás amándó.—Od. i. 8.

4. Asclepiadean I (minor), consisting of Lesser Asclepiadics (5):—

éxēgf monumént^{um} || aére perénniús
régālíque sitú || pýramid^{um} áltiús.—Od. iii. 30.

(Found in Od. i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.)

5. Asclepiadean II, consisting of one Glyconic (1) and one Lesser Asclepiadic (5):—

návis quaé tibi créditúm

débēs Vérgiliúm, || fínibus Átticís

réddās íncolumém, precór,

ét servés animaé || dímidiúm meaé.—Od. i. 3.

(Found in Od. i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. i, 3.)

6. Asclepiadean III, consisting of three Lesser Asclepiadics (5) and one Glyconic (1):—

quís desíderió || sít pudor aut modus

tám carí capitís? || praécipe lúgubrís

cántus, Mélpomené, || cuí liquidám patér

(Found in Od. i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.)

vốcem cúm cithará dedít. — Od. i. 24.

7. Asclepiadean IV, consisting of two Lesser Asclepiadics (5), one Pherecratic (4), and one Glyconic (1):—

ố fôns Bándusiaé || spléndidiór vitró,
dúlcī dígne meró, || nón sine flóribús,
crás dônáberis haédó
cuí frôns túrgida córnibús. — Od. iii. 13.
(Found in Od. i. 5, 14, 21, 23; iii. 7, 13; iv. 13.)

8. Asclepiadean V (major), consisting of Greater Asclepiadics (6): —

tú në quaésierís, || scíre nefás! || quém mihi, quém tibí fínem dí dederínt, || Leúconoé, || néc Babylóniós téntārís numerós. — Od. i. 11.

(Found in Od. i. 11, 18; iv. 10.)

9. Alcmanian, consisting of Dactylic Hexameter (§ 615) alternating with Tetrameter (§ 617. a). (Od. i. 7, 28; Epod. 12.)

- 10. Archilochian I, consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter alternating with a Dactylic Penthemim (see § 617. b). (Od. iv. 7.)
- 11. Archilochian IV, consisting of a Greater Archilochian (heptameter, § 622. 1), followed by Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (§ 618. d). The stanza consists of two pairs of verses:—

sólvitur ácris hiéms grātá vice || Véris ét Favónī, trahúntque síccās || máchinaé carínás; ác neque iám stabulís gaudét pecus, || aút arátor ígnī, nec práta cánīs || álbicánt pruínís. — Od. i. 4.

- 12. Iambic Trimeter alone (see § 618). (Epod. 17.)
- 13. Iambic Strophe (see § 618. a). (Epod. 1-10.)
- 14. Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Iambic Dimeter:

 nóx erat, ét caeló || fulgébat lúna serénō
 intér minóra síderá,
 cúm tū, mágnōrúm || nūmén laesúra deórum,
 in vérba iúrābás meá.—Epod. 15. (So in Epod. 14.)
- 15. Dactylic Hexameter with Iambic Trimeter (§ 618):—

 áltera iám teritúr || bellís civílibus aétàs,

 suís et ípsa Róma || víribús ruít.—Epod. 16.
- 16. Verse of Four Lesser Ionics (§ 609. c. 2):—

 miserār^{um} est | nequ^e amōrī | dare lūdum | neque dulcī

 mala vīnō | laver^e aut ex|animārī | metuentīs.—Od. iii. 12.
- 17. Iambic Trimeter (§ 618); Dactylic Penthemim (§ 617. b); Iambic Dimeter:—

 Pettí, nihíl mě || sícut ánteá iuvát scríbere vérsiculós || amóre pérculsúm graví.—Epod. 11.
 - 18. Dactylic Hexameter; Iambic Dimeter; Dactylic Penthemim (§ 617. b):

 hórrida témpestás || caelúm contráxit, et ímbres

 nivésque déducúnt Iovém; || núnc mare, núnc silüaé . . .

 —Epod. 13.
 - 19. Trochaic Dimeter, Iambic Trimeter, each catalectic (see § 620. c).

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- 17. Iam iam efficācī: 12.
- 627. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the abovementioned verses:
 - a. Glyconics with one Pherecratic (both imperfect):—

Díā|naé sŭmŭs | ín fídé
púel|lae ét pŭě|r³ íntěgrí:
Díā|nám, pŭě|r³ íntěgrí
půel|laéquě că|ná|můs. — Catull. xxxiv.

b. Sapphics, in a series of single lines, closing with an Adonic: —

Án mă|gís dī|rí trěmŭ|érě | Mánēs
Hércŭ|lem? ét vī|súm cănĭs | ínfě|rórům
fúgǐt | ábrup|tís trěpĭ|dús că|ténīs?
fállĭ|múr: lae|té věnǐt | éccě | vúltū,
quém tŭ|lít Poe|ás; hůmě|rísquě | télă
géstăt | ét nō|tás pŏpŭ|lís phă|rétrās
Hércŭlĭs | hérēs. — Sen. Herc. Oet. 1600–1606.

c. Sapphics followed by Glyconics, of indefinite number (id. Herc. Fur. 830-874, 875-894).

MISCELLANEOUS

- 628. Other measures occur in various styles of poetry.
- a. Anapæstic (§ 609. b. 2) verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry. The spondee, dactyl, or proceleusmatic may be substituted for the anapæst:—

híc homóst | omni^{um} hómi|num praé|cipuós voluptá|tibus gau|diisqu^e án|tepoténs. Ita com|modă quaé | cupi^o é|veniunt, quod agó | subit, ád|secué | sequitur: Ita gau|dium sup|peditát.—Pl. Trin. 1115–1119.

b. Bacchiac (§ 609. d. 4) verses (five-timed) occur in the dramatic poets, — very rarely in Terence, more commonly in Plautus, — either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). They are treated very freely, as are

all measures in early Latin. The long syllables may be resolved, or the molossus (three longs) substituted:—

multás rēs | sĭmít^ū in | mĕó cor|dĕ vórsō, mult^{um} ín cō|gĭtándō | dŏlór^{em} in|dĭpíscŏr. ĕgŏmét mē | cōgō ét mā|cĕrō ét dē|fătígō; măgíster | mĭhi éxer|cĭtór ănĭ|mŭs núnc est.

- Pl. Trin. 223-226.

c. Cretic measures (§ 609. d. 1) occur in the same manner as the Bacchiac, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete:—

ámor amī cús mihī | né fuās | úmquam. his ego | de artibus | grátiam | facio. níl ego is tos moror | faeceos | mores. — id. 267, 293, 297.

- d. Saturnian Verse. In early Latin is found a rude form of verse, not borrowed from the Greek like the others, but as to the precise nature of which scholars are not agreed.¹
- 1. According to one view the verse is based on quantity, is composed of six feet, and is divided into two parts by a cæsura before the fourth thesis. Each thesis may consist of a long syllable or of two short ones, each arsis of a short syllable, a long syllable, or two short syllables; but the arsis, except at the beginning of the verse and before the cæsura, is often entirely suppressed, though rarely more than once in the same verse:—

dăbunt mălum Mětelli || Naevió poétae.

2. According to another theory the Saturnian is made up, without regard to quantity, of alternating accented and unaccented syllables; but for any unaccented syllable two may be substituted, and regularly are so substituted in the second foot of the verse:—

dábunt málum Metéllī || Naévió poétae.

EARLY PROSODY

- 629. The prosody of the earlier poets differs in several respects from that of the later.²
- a. At the end of words s, being only feebly sounded, does not make position with a following consonant; it sometimes disappeared altogether. This usage continued in all poets till Cicero's time (§ 15.7).
- ¹ The two principal theories only are given. There are numerous variations, particularly of the second theory here stated.
- ² Before the Latin language was used in literature, it had become much changed by the loss of final consonants and the shortening of final syllables under the influence of accent. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early poets. This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but shows itself again in the Romance languages.

- **b.** A long syllable immediately preceded or followed by the ictus may be shortened (*iambic shortening*):—
- 1. In a word of two syllables of which the first is short (this effect remained in a few words like pută, cavě, valě, vidě, egő, modő, duő 1):—

ábí (Ter. Ph. 59); bốní (id. 516); hŏmŏ suávis (id. 411).

- 2. If it is either a monosyllable or the first syllable of a word which is preceded by a short monosyllable:
 - séd hás tabellas (Pl. Pers. 195); quid hie nunc (id. Epid. 157); per inpluvium (Ter. Ph. 707); ego osténderem (id. 793).
- 3. When preceded by a short initial syllable in a word of more than three syllables:
 - věnůstátis (Ter. Hec. 848); sěněctútem (id. Ph. 434); Sýrăcúsās (Pl. Merc. 37); ămĭcítia (id. Ps. 1263).
- c. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded.² Such are Ille, immo, inde, iste, omnis, nempe, quippe, unde.
 - d. The original long quantity of some final syllables is retained.
- 1. The ending -or is retained long in nouns with long stem-vowel (original retems or original s-stems): —

módo quom díct^a in $m^{\bar{e}}$ íngerébās ódium nón uxốr erám (Pl. Asin. 927). íta $m^{\bar{i}}$ in péctor^e átque córde fácit amốr incéndiúm (id. Merc. 500). átque quántō nóx fuístī lóngiốr hāc próxumá (id. Am. 548).

- 2. The termination -es (-ĭtis) is sometimes retained long, as in mīlēs, superstēs.
- 3. All verb-endings in -r, -s, and -t may be retained long where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection:
 - régrediór audísse mé (Pl. Capt. 1023); átque ut quf fuerīs et quí nunc (id. 248); mē nóminát haec (id. Epid. iv. 1. 8); faciát ut sémper (id. Poen. ii. 42); înfuscābāt, amābō (cretics, id. Cist. i. 21); quī amēt (id. Merc. 1021); ut fit in béllō cápitur álter fíliús (id. Capt. 25); tibi sít ad mé revísás (id. Truc. ii. 4. 79).
- e. Hiatus (§ 612. g) is allowed somewhat freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of speaker.³
- ¹ Cf. ambō (also a dual, p. 59, footnote), in which the ō is retained because of the length of the first syllable.
 - ² Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle or the extent of this irregularity.
- ³ The extent of this license is still a question among scholars; but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.

MISCELLANEOUS

Reckoning of Time

630. The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (ab urbe conditā, annō urbis conditae), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754: e.g. A.U.C. 691 (the year of Cicero's consulship) corresponds to B.C. 63.

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days, February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. As this calendar year was too short for the solar year, the Romans, in alternate years, at the discretion of the pontifices, inserted a month of varying length (mēnsis intercalāris) after February 23, and omitted the rest of February. The "Julian year," by Cæsar's reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vi. Kal. Mārt.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called bissextīlis. The month Quintilis received the name Iūlius (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar; and Sextīlis was called Augustus (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year three times in every four hundred years.

- 631. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:
 - a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).

NOTE. — Kalendae is derived from calare, to call, — the Calends being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the Comitia Calata. This they did, originally, from actual observation.

- b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the other months, were the Idus (Ides), the day of Full Moon.
- c. On the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, were the Nonae (Nones or ninths).
- d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned backwards as so many days before the Nones, the Ides, or the Calends. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the second day being three days before, etc. This gives the following rule for determining the date:—

If the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding, — if Nones or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall, — and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date. Thus, —

viii. Kal. Feb. (31+2-8) = Jan. 25. iv. Non. Mar. (7+1-4) = Mar. 4. iv. Id. Sept. (13+1-4) = Sept. 10.

Note. — The name of the month appears as an adjective in agreement with Kalendae, Nonae, Īdūs.

For peculiar constructions in dates, see § 424. g.

e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following table:—

	Januar y			February		March		April .				
1.	. Kal. Iān.			KAL. FEB.		KAL. MĀRTIAE		KAL. APRĪLĒS				
	. IV. Non. Ian.		ıv. Nön. Feb.		vi. Non. Mart.		ıv. Nön. Apr.					
	m. "					16	v.	66	44	III.		6
	prīd.	6	6 6	prīd.'	6	16	IV.	66	66	prīd.'	• •	16
	Non.			Non.		•	III.	"	66	Non. Aprīl ēs		
6.	viii. I	d. Iā	n.	viii.	id. F	eb.	prīd.		66	viii. j	id. Aj	or.
7.	VII.	• •	4	VII.	"	•	Nōn	. Māi	RTIAE		_	•
8.	VI.	•	4	VI.	"	•	VIII.	Īd. M	lārt.	VI.	"	6
9.	v.	• •	6	v.	"	6	VII.	66	66	v.	"	6
10.	IV.	•	6	IV.	"	6	VI.	"	"	IV.	"	6
11.	m.	• •	6	III.	"	•	v.	"	"	III.	"	6
12.	prīd.	• •	4	prīd.	"	6	IV.	"	46	prīd.	"	6
13.	Īdūs l	IAN.		ÎDŪS :	FEB.		III.	66	"	Īdūs	Aprī	LĒS.
14.	xix. I	Kal.	Feb.	xvi. I	Kal. 1	Mārtiās	prīd.	. 66	66	xvIII.	Kal.	Māiās.
15.	xvIII.	66	66	XV.	66	66	Īdūs	MĀR	TIAE	xvII.	66	66
16.	XVII.	66	66	XIV.	66	66	XVII.	Kal.	Aprīlīs.	XVI.	"	44
17.	XVI.	66	"	XJII.	46	66	XVI.	66	66	XV.	66	66
18.	XV.	66	66	XII.	66	66	xv.	66	66	XIV.	66	"
19.	XIV.	"	66	XI.	66	66	XIV.	66	66	XIII.	66	"
20.	XIII.	66	66	x.	66	66	XIII.	66	66	XII.	66	"
21.	XII.	"	66	IX.	66	66	XII.	66	66	XI.	66	66
22.	XI.	4.6	66	VIII.	44	66	XI.	66	66	x.	46	66
23.	x.	66	66	VII.	66	66	x.	66	66	IX.	"	66
24.	IX.	"	66	VI.	66	66	IX.	"	66	VIII.	"	66
25.	VIII.	66	66	v.	66	66	VIII.	"	66	VII.	"	46
26.	VII.	66	66	IV.	66	66	VII.	"	66	VI.	66	66
27.	VI.	66	66	m.	66	44	VI.	4.6	"	v.	66	66
28.	v.	66	66	prīd.	66	66	v.	66	66	IV.	66	46
29.	IV.	66	"	[prid.	Kal.	Mārt. in	IV.	66	66	III.	66	66
30.	III.	"	66	_	•	r, the vi.	III.	66	66	prid.	66	66
31.	prīd.	"	"		•	h) being	prid.		46	(So Ju	-	ept.,
	(So Aug., Dec.)		counted twice.]		(So May, July, Oct.)		Nov.)					

Note. — Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) is to be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

Measures of Value, etc.

632. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the as, which was nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).

In the third century B.c. the as was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced, — the denarius and the sestertius. The denarius = 10 asses; the sestertius = $2\frac{1}{2}$ asses.

633. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the as had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin (2½ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the as. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abreviated to HS or HS) came to be used as the unit of value, and nummus, coin, often means simply sestertius. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The approximate value of these coins is seen in the following table:—

```
2½ asses = 1 sēstertius or nummus, value nearly 5 cents (2½ d.).

10 asses or 4 sēstertiī = 1 dēnārius . " " 20 " (10 d.).

1000 sēstertiī = 1 sēstertium . . . " " $50.00 (£10).
```

Note. — The word sestertius is a shortened form of semis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation HS or HS = duo et semis, two and a half.

634. The sestertium (probably originally the genitive plural of sestertius depending on mille) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria sestertia = \$150.00.

When sestertium is combined with a numeral adverb, centena milia, hundreds of thousands, is to be understood: thus deciens sestertium (deciens Hs) = deciens centena milia sestertium = \$50,000. Sestertium in this combination may also be inflected: deciens sestertii, sestertio, etc.

In the statement of large sums sestertium is often omitted as well as centena milia: thus sexagiens (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexagiens [centena milia sestertium] = 6,000,000 sesterces = \$300,000 (nearly).

635. In the statement of sums of money in Roman numerals, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus HS DC = 600 sestertii; HS $\overline{DC} = 600000$ sestertii, or 600 sestertii; HS $|\overline{DC}| = 600000000$ sestertii, or 6000 sestertii.

636. The Roman Measures of Length are the following: —

```
12 inches (unciae) = 1 Roman Foot (p\bar{e}s: 11.65 English inches).
1\frac{1}{4} Feet = 1 Cubit (cubitum). — 2\frac{1}{4} Feet = 1 Step (gradus).
```

⁵ Feet = 1 Pace (passus). — 1000 Paces (mille passuum) = 1 Mile.

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The iugerum, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of an English acre.

637. The Measures of Weight are —

12 uncise (ounces) = one pound (libra, about \ lb. avoirdupois).

Fractional parts (weight or coin) are —

$\frac{1}{12}$, uncia.	$\frac{5}{12}$, quincunx.	$\frac{3}{4}$, $d\bar{o}dr\bar{a}ns$.
$\frac{1}{6}$, sextâns.	$\frac{1}{2}$, sēmis.	§, dextāns.
$\frac{1}{4}$, quadrāns.	$\frac{7}{12}$, septunx.	$\frac{1}{1}$, deunx.
$\frac{1}{3}$, triēns.	$\frac{2}{3}$, bēs or bēssis.	$\frac{1}{1}\frac{2}{2}$, as.

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight (τάλαντον) = 60 librae.

638. The Measures of Capacity are —

```
12 cyathī = 1 sextārius (nearly a pint).
16 sextāriī = 1 modius (peck).
6 sextāriī = 1 congius (3 quarts, liquid measure).
8 congiī = 1 amphora (6 gallons).
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GLOSSARY

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY

639. Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all—as, indeed, they were not. Thus when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using litotes; when he says, "John went up the street, James down," antithesis; when he says, "High as the sky," hyperbole. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus med and ted (§ 143. a. n.) were supposed to owe their d to paragoge, sumpsi its p to epenthesis. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by prolepsis.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have an historic interest, of one kind or another.

640. Grammatical Terms

Anacoluthon: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.

Anastrophe: inversion of the usual order of words.

Apodosis: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see Protasis).

Archaism: an adoption of old or obsolete forms. Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions (§ 323. b).

Barbarism: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.

Brachylogy: brevity of expression.

Crasis: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 15.3).

Ellipsis: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense.

Enallage: substitution of one word or form for another.

Epenthesis: insertion of a letter or syllable.

Hellenism: use of Greek forms or constructions.

Hendiadys (v dià dvoîv): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.

Hypallage: interchange of constructions.

Hysteron proteron: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

This term was applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Bred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

Metathesis: transposition of letters in a word.

Paragoge: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.

Parenthesis: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.

Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (circumlocution).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polysyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prolepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (anticipation).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (if, when, whoever), leading to a conclusion called the Apodosis (§ 512).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word.

Synesis (constructio ad sensum): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 280. a).

Tresis: the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).

This term came from the earlier separation of prepositions (originally adverbs) from the verbs with which they were afterwards joined; so in per ecastor scitus puer, a very fine boy, egad! As this was supposed to be intentional, it was ignorantly imitated in Latin; as in cere-comminuit -brum (Ennius).

Zeugma: the use of a verb or an adjective with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (yoking).

641. Rhetorical Figures

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

Anaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses ($\S 598.f$).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis: § 598. f).

Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse: —

sint Maecēnātēs, non deerunt, Flacce, Maronēs, so there be patrons (like Mæcenas), poets (like Virgil) will not be lacking, Flaccus (Mart. viii. 56. 5).

illa furia et pestis, that fury and plague (i.e. Clodius); Homēromastīx, scourge of Homer (i.e. Zoilus).

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (abūsiō, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs of phrases $(\S 598. f)$.

Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea:—

sī quid eī acciderit, if anything happens to him (i.e. if he dies).

Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.

Hyperbole: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.

Irony: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.

Litotes: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 326. c).

Metaphor: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.

Metonymy: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.

Onomatepecia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.

Oxymoron: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase: —

īnsāniens sapientia, foolish wisdom.

Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.

Prosopopæia: personification.

Simile: a figurative comparison (usually introduced by like, or as).

Synchysis: the interlocked order (§ 598. h).

Synecdoche: the use of the name of a part for the whole, or the reverse.

642. Terms of Prosody

Acatalectic: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 612. a).

Anaclasis: breaking up of rhythm by substituting different measures.

'Anacrusis: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse (§ 608.9).

Antistrophe: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. strophe).

Arsis: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 611).

Basis: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.

Casura: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 611. b).

Catalectic: see Catalexis.

Catalexis: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series catalectic (incomplete, § 612. a).

Contraction: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 610).

Correption: shortening of a long syllable, for metrical reasons.

Diæresis: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word within the verse ($\S 611.c$).

Dialysis: the use of i (consonant) and \mathbf{v} as vowels (sitia = silva, § 603. f. n. 4).

Diastole: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 612. b).

Dimeter: consisting of two like measures.

Dipody: consisting of two like feet.

Distich: a system or series of two verses.

Ecthlipsis: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 612. f).

Elision: the cutting off of a final before a following initial wowel (§ 612. e). Heptameter: consisting of seven feet.

Hexameter: consisting of six measures.

Hexapody: consisting of six feet.

Hiatus: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision (§ 612. g).

Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 611. a).

Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 609. e).

Logaædic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose (§ 623).

Monometer: consisting of a single measure.

Mora: the unit of time, equal to one short syllable (§ 608. a).

Pentameter: consisting of five measures.

Pentapody: consisting of five feet.

Penthemimeris: consisting of five half-feet.

Protraction: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length (608. c).

Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 610).

Strophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (stanza), which may be indefinitely repeated.

Synæresis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel (§ 603. c. N., f. N. 4).

Synalæpha: the same as elision (§ 612. e. n.).

Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 612. e. N.).

Syncope: loss of a short vowel.

Synizesis: the running together of two vowels without full contraction (§ 603. c. N.).

Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.

Tetrameter: consisting of four measures.

Tetrapody: consisting of four feet. Tetrastich: a system of four verses.

Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 611).

Trimeter: consisting of three measures.

Tripody: consisting of three feet. Tristich: a system of three verses.

INDEX OF VERBS

Regular verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations are given only in special cases. Compounds are usually omitted when they are conjugated like the simple verbs. The figures after the verbs indicate the conjugation. References are to sections. For classified lists of important verbs see § 209 (First Conjugation), § 210 (Second Conjugation), § 211 (Third Conjugation), § 212 (Fourth Conjugation), § 190, 191 (Deponents), § 192 (Semi-Deponents).

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ab-dō, 3, -didī, -ditum, 209. a. n.
                                                 af-fligo, 3, -xī, -ctum.
                                                 ag-gredior, -i, -gressus [gradior].
ab-eō, see eō.
                                                 āgnosco, 3, -ovi, āgnitum [nosco].
ab-iciō, 3, -iecī, -iectum [iaciō].
ab-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctum [agō].
                                                 agō, 3, ēgī, āctum. [For regular comps.,
                                                   see ab-igō; for others, see cōgō, circum-,
ab-nuo, 3, -nui, —
ab-oleō, 2, -evi, -itum.
                                                 äiö, defect., 206. a.
ab-olėsco, 3, -ėvi, — [aboleo].
ab-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptum [rapiō].
                                                 albeō, 2, -ui, —.
abs-condō, 3, -dī (-didī), -ditum [condō].
                                                 alēscō, 3, -ui, -alitum.
ab-sisto, 3, -stitī, -
                                                 algeo, 2, alsī, —.
                                                 algēscō, 3, alsī, —.
ab-sum, abesse, āfuī, (āfutūrus).
                                                 al-legō, 3, -ēgī, -ēctum.
ac-cendo, 3, -cendi, -censum.
                                                 al-liciō, 3, -lexī, —.
accerso, see arcesso
                                                 alō, 3, aluī, altum (alitum).
ac-cidit (impers.), 207, 208. c.
                                                 amb-igō, 3, -, - [agō].
ac-cidō, 3, -cidī, — [cadō].
ac-cidō, 3, -cidī, -cisum [caedō].
                                                 ambiō, -ire, -ii (-ivi), -itum (ambibat),
                                                   203. d.
ac-ciō, 4, reg. [ciō].
ac-cipiō, 3, -cepi, -ceptum [capiō].
                                                 amicio, 4, amixī (-cuī), amictum.
ac-colō, 3, -uī, —
                                                 amō, 180, 184; amārim, amāsse, amās-
                                                   sem, 181. a; amāssis, 183. 5.
ac-credo, see credo.
                                                 angō, 3, anxī, —.
ac-cumbo, 3, -cubui, -itum.
ac-curro, 3, -curri (-cucurri), -cursum.
                                                 ante-cellō, 3, —, —.
                                                 ante-sto, 1, -steti, —.
ac\bar{e}sc\bar{o}, 3, -acu\bar{i}, — [co-].
                                                anti-stō, 1, -stetī, —.
ac-quirō, 3, -quisivi, -quisitum [quaerō].
acuō, 3, -uī, -ūtum, 174, 176. d.
                                                 aperiō, 4, aperui, apertum.
ad-do, 3, -didi, -ditum, 209. a. N.
                                                 apiscor, -i, aptus [ad-ipiscor].
                                                ap-pello, 3, -puli, -pulsum.
ad-eō, see eō.
                                                ap-petō, 3, -petīvī (-iī), -itum.
ad-hibeo, 2, -uī, -itum [habeo].
ad-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctum [agō].
                                                 ap-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressum [premō].
ad-imo, 3, -emi, -emptum [emo].
                                                arceō, 2, -uī, — [co-erceō].
                                                arcesső (accerső), 3, -ivi, arcessitum.
ad-ipiscor, -i, -eptus.
ad-nuō, 3, -nuī, —.
                                                ārdeō, 2, ārsī, (ārsūrus).
ad-oleō, 2, -uī, -
                                                ārdēscō, 3, ārsī, —.
ad-olēsco, 3, -ēvī, -ultum.
                                                āreō, 2, —, —.
                                                ārēscō, 3, -ārui, —.
ad-sentior, -īrī, -sēnsus.
ad-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessum [sedeō].
                                                arguð, 3, -u1, -ütum.
                                                ar-rigö, 3, -rēxī, -rēctum [regō].
ad-sidō, 3, -sēdī,  
ad-spergo, 3, -spersī, -spersum [spargo].
                                                ar-ripiö, 3, -ui, -reptum [rapiō].
                                                a-scendo, 3, -di, -scensum [scando].
ad-stō, 1, -stitī, -
ad-sum, -esse, -fuī, (-futūrus).
                                                a-spergō, see ad-spergō.
af-fārī, affātus, 206. c.
                                                a-spiciō, 3, -exī, -ectum [-spiciō].
af-ferō, -ferre, attulī, allātum.
                                                at-tendo, 3, -dī, -tum.
af-ficio, 3, -feci, -fectum [facio].
                                                at-tineo, 2, -tinui, -tentum [teneo].
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at-tingo, 3, -tigī, -tāctum [tango].
at-tollo, 3, —, — [tollo]
audeō, audēre, ausus, 192 (ausim, 183. 3;
  sodes, 13. n.).
audio, 4, audivi, auditum, 187 (contracted
  forms, 181. b).
au-fero, -ferre, abstuli, ablatum.
augeo, 2, auxi, auctum.
ausim, see audeō.
avē (havē), avēte, avētō, 206. g.
aveō, 2, —, —.
balbūtiō, 4, —, —.
bātuō, 3, -uī, —.
bibō, 3, bibī, (pōtum).
bulliō, 4, reg. (bullō, -āre) [ē-bulliō].
cado, 3, cecidi, casum [ac-, con-, oc-cido],
  178. b.
caecūtio, 4, —, —.
caedō, 3, cecīdī, caesum [ac-, oc-cīdō, etc.].
cale-fació, like fació, 266. a.
cale-facto, 1, —, —, 266. a.
caleō, 2, -uī, (calitūrus).
calēsco, 3, -ui, -.
calleo, 2, -uī, —.
calveō, 2, —, —.
candeo, 2, -ui, —.
candēsco, 3, -candui, -..
cāneō, 2, -ui, —.
cānēsco, 3, cānui, —.
cano, 3, cecini, — [con-cino].
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depső, 3, -sui, -stum.
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dē-sinō, 3, -siī (-sīvī), -situm [sinō].
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dir-ibeō, 2, —, -itum [habeō].

dir-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptum [emō].

dī-luō, 3, -luī, -lūtum [luō].

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ex-colo, 3, -uī, -cultum [colo].
ex-curro, 3, -curro (-cucurro), -cursum.
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ex-olesco, 3, -olevī, -oletum.
ex-pello, 3, -puli, -pulsum.
ex-pergiscor, 3, -perrectus.
ex-perior, 4, -pertus.
ex-pleo, 2, -ēvī, -ētum.
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ex-pungō, 3, -pūnxī, -pūnctum.
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ob-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum.
ob-solēsco, 3, -evī, -etum.
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oc-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsum [caedō].
oc-cino, 3, -cinui, — [cano].
oc-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptum.
occulō, 3, occuluī, occultum.
oc-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum.
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-oleo (grow) [see ab-, ad-]. oleo (smell), 2, oluī, —.
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pallēsco, 3, pallui, —.
pandō, 3, pandī, pānsum (passum) [dis-].
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parcō, 3, pepercī (parsī), (parsūrus).
pāreō, 2, -uī, pāritum (late).
pario, 3, peperi, partum (paritūrus)
  [com-, re-perio].
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pateō, 2, patuī, -
patior, -ī, passus [per-petior].
paveč, 2, pavi, —.
pavēsco, 3, -pāvī, — [ex-].
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pendō, 3, pependī, pēnsum.
per-agō, 3, -ēgī, -āctum.
per-cellō, 3, -culī, -culsum.
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per-curro, 3, -curri (-cucurri), -cursum.
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-pleo, 2, -plevi, -pletum (only in comps.,
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pōnō, 3, posuī, positum.
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por-rigō (porgō), 3, -rēxī, -rēctum.
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re-cido, 3, -cidi, -cisum [caedo].
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re-miniscor, -i, ---.
renīdeō, 2, —, —.
reor, reri, ratus.
re-pello, 3, reppuli (repuli), repulsum.
reperio, 4, repperi, repertum.
repo, 3, repsi, —.
re-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressum [premō].
re-quiro, 3, -sivi, -situm [quaero].
re-sideo, 2, -sēdī, —.
re-siliō, 4, -uī (-iī), —.
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suf-ferō, sufferre, sustulī, sublātum. suf-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]. suf-fodið, 3, -födī, -fossum. sug-gerō, 3, -gessī, -gestum. sūgō, 3, sūxī, sūctum. sültis (= sī vultis), 13. n. sum, esse, fuī, (futūrus), 170; fuī (forem, fore, 170. a; †sons, -sens, ens, id. b; fūvimus, fūvisset, siem, fuam, fuās, escit, escunt, id. b. n.; homōst, etc., 13. N.). sūmo, 3, sūmpsī, sūmptum, 15. 11. suo, 3, suī, sūtum. super-dō, -dăre, -dedī, -dătum, 209. a. n. super-fit, defect., 204. c.super-fluō, 3, —, — [fluō]. super-stō, 1, -stetī, super-sum, see sum (superest, impers., 208. c).surdesco, 3, surdui, —. surgo (sur-rigo), 3, surrexī, surrectum. sur-ripiō, 3, -uī (surpuī), -reptum [rapiō]. tābeō, 2, -uī, —. tābēscō, 3, tābuī, —. taedet (impers.), -ēre, taeduit, pertaesum est, 208. b. tangō [TAG], 3, tetigī, tāctum, 176. c. 2 [con-tingo]. tego, 3, texī, tectum, 186. temno, 3, -tempsī, -temptum, 176. b. 1. tendō [TEN], 3, tetendī, tentum. teneo, 2, tenui, -tentum [con-tineo, etc.]. tepēsco, 3, tepui, —. tergeō, 2, tersī, tersum. tergō, 3, tersī, tersum. terō, 3, trīvī, trītum. texō, 3, texui, textum. timeō, 2, -uī, —. -timēscō, 3, -timuī, —. tingō (tinguō), 3, tīnxī, tīnctum, 178. b. N.². tollo, 3, sustulī, sublatum, 211. f. n. [at-tollo]. tonde \bar{o} , 2, -totond \bar{i} (-tond \bar{i}), tonsum, 177. c. tono, 1, -uī, -tonitum (-tonātum). torpeō, 2, —, —. torqueō, 2, torsī, tortum. torreo, 2, torrui, tostum. trā-dō, 3, -didī, -ditum, 209. a. N. trahō,3, trāxī, trāctum (trāxe, 181. b. n. 2). trans-curro, 3, -curri (-cucurri), -cursum. tremo, 3, tremui, tribuō, 3, tribuī, tribūtum. trūdō, 3, trūsī, trūsum. tueor, -ērī, tuitus (tūtus, adj.). tumeo, 2, —, —. tumesco, 3, -tumuī, — [in-]. tundo [TVD], 3, tutudī, tūnsum (-tūsum) [ob-tundo]. turgeō, 2, tursī, —. tussiō, 4, —, —.

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LATIN AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS CITED IN THIS BOOK

NOTE.—In the citations the names Cæsar, Cicero, Sallust (with *Iugurtha*), and Virgil are not generally given. Thus, "B. G." refers to Cæsar's *Bellum Gallicum*; "Fam." to Cicero's letters ad Familiares; "Iug." to Sallust's *Iugurtha*; "Aen." to Virgil's Æneid, etc.

Ap., Apuleius (A.D. 125-?): Met., Metamorphoses. -, B. Afr., Bellum Afri-Cæsar (B.C. 100-44): B. C., Bellum Civile. B. G., Bellum Gallicum. Cato (B.C. 234–149): de M., de Moribus. R. R., de Re Rustica. Catull., Catullus (B.C. 87– 54). Cic., Cicero (B.C. 106-43): Acad., Academica. Ad Her., [ad Herennium]. Arch., pro Archia. Att., ad Atticum. Balb., pro Balbo. Brut., Brutus de Claris Oratoribus. Caec., pro Caecina. Caecil., Divinatio in Caecilium. Cael., pro M. Caelio. Cat., in Catilinam. Cat. M., Cato Maior (de Senectute).Clu., pro Cluentio. Deiot., pro Deiotaro. De Or., de Oratore. Div., de Divinatione. Dom., pro Domo Sua. Fam., ad Familiares. Fat., de Fato. Fin., de Finibus. Flace., pro Flaceo. Font., pro M. Fonteio. Har. Resp., de Haruspicum Responsis. Inv., de Inventione Rhetorica.

Cic. Lael., Laelius (de Amicitia). Leg. Agr., de Lege Agraria. Legg., de Legibus. Lig., pro Ligario. Manil., pro Lege Manilia. Marc., pro Marcello. Mil., pro Milone. Mur., pro Murena. N. D., de Natura Deorum. Off., de Officiis. Or., Orator. Par., Paradoxa. Part. Or., de Partitione Oratoria. Phil., Philippicae. Planc., pro Plancio. Pison., in Pisonem. Prov. Cons., de Provinciis Consularibus. Q. Fr., ad Q. Fratrem. Quinct., pro Quinctio. Rabir., pro Rabirio. Rab. Post., pro Rabirio ${\it Postumo}$. Rep., de Re Publica. Rosc. Am., pro Roscio $oldsymbol{Amerino}.$ Rosc. Com., pro Roscio Comoedo. Scaur., pro Scauro. Sest., pro Sestio. Sull., pro Sulla. Tim., Timaeus (de Universo). Top., Topica. Tull., pro Tullio. Tusc., Tusculanae Disputationes. Vat., in Vatinium.

Cic. Verr., in Verrem. Claud., Claudianus (abt. **A.D.** 400): iv C. H., de Quarto Consulatu Honorii. Enn., Ennius (B.C. 239-169). Gell., A. Gellius (d. A.D. **175).** Hirtius (d. B.C. 43): ? B. Al., Bellum Alexandrinum. Hor., Horace (B.C. 65-8): A. P., de Arte Poetica. C. S., Carmen Saeculare. Ep., Epistles. Epod. Epodes. Od. Odes. 8. Satires. Iust., Justinus (abt. A.D. **150)**. Iuv., Juvenal (abt. A.D. 60-Liv., Livy (B.C. 59-A.D. 17). Lucr., Lucretius (B.C. 96-55). Mart., Martial (A.D. 43-? 104): Ep., Epigrams. Nep., Nepos (B.C. 99-24): Ages., Agesilaus. Alc., Alcibiades. Att., Atticus. Dat., Datames. Dion, Dion. Epam., Epaminondas. Eum., Eumenes. Hann., Hannibal. Milt., Miltiades. Paus., Pausanias. Them., Themistodes. Timoth., Timotheus.

Ov., Ovid (B.C. 43-A.D. 17): A. A., Ars Amatoria. F., Fasti. H., Heroides. M., Metamorphoses. Pont., Epistulae ex Ponto.Trist., Tristia. Pers., Persius (A.D. 34-62): Sat., Satires. Phaedrus (abt. Phaed., A.D. 40). Pl., Plautus (B.C. 254–184): Am., Amphitruo. Asin., Asinaria. Aul., Aulularia. Bac., Bacchides. Capt., Captivi. Cist., Cistellaria. Curc., Curculio. Epid., Epidicus. Men., Menaechmi. Merc., Mercator. Mil., Miles Gloriosus. Most., Mostellaria. Pers., Persa. Poen., Poenulus. Ps., Pseudolus. Rud., Rudens. Stich., Stichus. Trin., Trinummus.

Truc., Truculentus.

Plin., Pliny, senior (A.D. 23-79): H. N., Historia Naturalis. Plin., Pliny, junior (A.D. 62–113) : Ep., Epistles. Prop., Propertius (B.C. 49-Pub. Syr., Publilius Syrus (abt. B.C. 44). Q. C., Q. Curtius (abt. A.D. 50). Quint., Quintilian \ (abt. A.D. 35-95). Sall., Sallust (B.C. 86-34): Cat., Catilina. Ep. Mith., Epistula Mithridatis. Iug., Iugurtha. -, S. C. de Bac., Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus (B.C. 186). Sen., Seneca (B.C. 4-A.D. 65): Dial., Dialogues. Ep., Epistles. Herc. Fur., Hercules Furens.Herc. Oet., Hercules

Oetaeus.

Med., Medea.

Sen. Q. N., Quaestiones Naturales. Sil., Silius Italicus (abt. A.D. 25–101). Suet., Suetonius (abt. A.D. 75–160): Aug., Augustus. Dom., Domitianus. Galb., Galba. Tac., Tacitus (abt. A.D. **55–120)**: Agr., *Agricola*. Ann., Annales. H., Historiae. **Ter., Terence** (d. **B.C.** 159) : Ad., Adelphi. And., Andria. Eun., Eunuchus. Haut., Hautontimorumenos.Hec., Hecyra. Ph., Phormio. Val., Valerius Maximus (abt. A.D. 26). Varr., Varro (B.C. 116-27): R. R., de Re Rustica. Vell., Velleius Paterculus (abt. B.C. 19-A.D. 31). Verg., Virgil (B.C. 70-19). Aen., Eneid. Ecl., Ecloques. Georg., Georgics.

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ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S LATIN GRAMMAR

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164. b	244 244	177. c	274. b
164. c	249	178	276
164. d	248	179	277
164. e	250	180	278. 1, 2
164. <i>f</i>	246	180. <i>c-e</i>	279. а-е
164. g	247	180. <i>f</i>	308. <i>f</i>
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184	282	P. 186, bottom	804
184. b	282. c	198	305 and N .
184. c	282. d	199	30 6
184. d, e	302. <i>e</i>	200	3 07
185	283, 284	200 . d	3 07. <i>f</i>
186. a, b	285. 1, 2	200. <i>e</i>	807. d
186. b. 2, 3	285. N.	201. a, b, c	$308. \ a, c, d$
186. c	282. b, c	201. d	807. <i>e</i>
186. d	286. a	201. e-h	808. <i>f</i> - <i>i</i>
187	287	202	809
187. a	287. 1, 2	202. a	810
187. b	287. 3	202. b	811
187. b. n.	287. 4 ·	202. <i>c</i>	312
187. c	287. 4. a	202. d	313
187. d, e	286. b , n.	202. e	313. a
188. a-c	288. a-c	202. f	314
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190	84 3. a	203. c. n.	315. N.
190. a	302. d	204	316
191	290	205	317
192	292	205. c and 1	317. d
192. b	292. a. n.	205. c. 2	317. e
193	293	205. d	317 . <i>c</i>
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194	295	206. c	3 19
194. b. N.	295. b. n. 2	206. c. 1	319. a
195	296 and 2	206. c. 2	319. b
195. 2	296. 1	207	321
195. a	297. f	207. n. 2, 3	320
195. b	297. b. x.	207. b	432. a
195. c	298. a	207. c	321. b
195. d	296. a	207. d	321. c. n.
195. e, f	298. b, c	208	323 202 - 1 2
195. f. r.	298. c. n. 1	208. b. 1–3	323. c. 1-3
195. g	298. d. 1	208. c	323. d
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196. c	301. <i>a</i> 301. <i>b</i>	209. e	329. a
196. <i>d</i> -f	3 01. <i>d</i> - <i>f</i>	209. e 210	329. a 330, 331
196. <i>a-y</i> 196. <i>g</i>	301. <i>c</i>	210. a	332
196. y 196. h	299. a	$210. \ a$ $210. \ b-d$	3 32. <i>a</i> – <i>c</i>
196. <i>i</i>	300. b	210. d. R.	332. c. n. 2
197	302	210. <i>e</i>	3 33

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210. e. r.	333. n.	225. е	365
210. <i>f</i>	333. a	226	366
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211	334, 33 5	227. n. 2	367. a. n. 2
211. R.	335. n.	227. c. n.	367. a. n. 1
212	336 .	227. e	368
212. b	337 ·	227. <i>f</i>	369
212. b. r.	335. d. n.	228	370
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214. c. r.	343. b. n.	231. a	373. b
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214. <i>g</i>	359. b	232. b, c 233	375. a, b 382
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216	346	233. b	382. 2
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218	349	234. e	432. a
218. b	349. c	235	376
218. c	349. d	235. a	377
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219	350	235. c	378. 2. n.
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219. c	351	2 35. <i>e</i>	379. a
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223	356	237. <i>g</i>	500. 3
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OLD	New	Огр	New
239. r.	395. n. 3	249. b	410. a. n. 1
239. 2	394	249. b. n.	410. a. n. 2
239. 2. b	395 and R.	250	414
239. c	396	250. R. and N.	414. a and N.
239. c. n. 1, 2	396. a, b	250. a	414. b
239. c. r.	396. b. n.	251	415
239. d	396. c	252	416
240. a	390. c , d and n . 2	252. a	417
240. b	397. a	252. b-d	417. a-c
240. c, d	397. b, d	253	418
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240. e	423, 425	253. a	510. n. 1 421
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241	340	254 254. a	429. 3
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242. n.	398	254. b. 2. R.	431. a. n. 1
243	400	255	419
243. a	401	255. d	420
243. b	402	256 256	423
243. d	402. a	256. a, b	424. a, b
243. e	411	257	425
243. e. n.	411. a	258	426. 1, 2
243. c. R.	411. b	258. 2. n. 1	428. h
243. f	356	258. 2. n. 2	428. <i>c</i>
243. f. R.	356. n.	258. a	427. 1
244	403	258. a. n. 1	428. a
244. a. R.	403. a. n. 1	258. a. n. 2	428. <i>f</i>
244. b	403. a. n. 2, 3	258. a. n. 3	428. <i>g</i>
244. с-е	403. b-d	258. b	427. 2
245	404	258. b. n. 1	428. k
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	404. a	258. b. n. 3	428. b
246	405	258. b. n. 5	428. g
246. R.	405. N. 2	258. b. R.	428. i
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248. a	413	259. a	424. d
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248. a. R.	413. n.	259. c	424. c
248. c. 1	409	259. d	424. f
248. c. 2	409. a	259. e	424. g
	409. a. n.	259. <i>g</i>	428. j. n.
249	410	259. h.	428. j

OLD	New	OLD	NEW
2 60	220	271. c	458
260. a	430	271. c. n.	455. 2. a
260. b	429. <i>b</i>	272	459
260. c	221. 24	272. r.	561. a
260. d .	221. 23	272. a. 1	4 55
260. e	221. 26	272. a. 2	455. a
261	432	272. b	581. n. 3
261. a. n.	432. b	273	460
261. b	432. c	273. c	457. a
261. c	432. d	273. d	461
261. d	433	273. e	460. c
262 and N. 1	434	273. <i>g</i>	461. a
263. N.	435	273. h	461. b
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264. a	465 ff.	P. 291. Note	464 485
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266. d	528. a	276. e	556
266. e	439. b	276. e. n.	556. a
266. e. r.	439. b. n. 2	276. <i>f</i>	465. a
266. e. n.	439. b. n. 1	277	470
267	441	277. R.	471
267. b	442	277. a-g	471. a-f
267. b. n. 1	442. a and N. 1	278	472
267. c	442. b	279	473
268	444	279. a	474
268. R.	444. n.	279. b	473. a
269	448	279. c	
269. N.	450. a, b	279. d	475. a
269. a	450	279. e	476
269. a. 2. n.	450. N. 1	279. R.	476. N.
269. a. 3. n.	450. N. 4	280	477
269. b. n.	450. N. 3	281	478
269. c	448. a	281. R.	478. N.
269. d. 1, 3	449. 1, 2	282	479
269. <i>e</i> - <i>g</i>	449. a-c	283	480
269. h	588	284	481
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270. b. n. 1	454. n.	287. c. r.	485. c. n. 1
270. c. R. 1 270. c	453	287. <i>f</i> -i	485. <i>g</i> -j
270. c 271	456	288. c and a	486 and a
271. a	457	288. d, R.	486. b, d, e
271. a. n. 1	563. b. 1	288. e	486. f
271. b	563. a	288. f	569. a

OLD	New	OLD	New
P. 306, mid.	487	308. b and R.	517. b
289	488	309	518
290	489	309. b	518. c
290. a	490	309. <i>c</i>	518. b
290. b	491	310	521
290. c	492	311	522
290. d	493	311. a	445 , 446
291	494	311. a. n. 1	447. 2
291. b	495	311. a. n. 2	44 6 44 7. α
291. b. r.	495. n. 496	311. a. n. 3 311. a. r.	447. 3. N.
292 292. r.	496. N. 1, 2	311. <i>a</i> . k. 311. <i>b</i>	447. 1
292. n. 1, 2	496. N. 3, 4	311. c	$522. \ a$
292. a. 1, 2	497	311. r.	522. n. 1
292. b-e	497. a-d	311. c. n.	522. n. 2
292. b. n.	411. a. n. 2	311. d	523
293	498	312	524
293. b	499	312. R., N.	524. n. 2, 1
293. <i>c</i>	498 . <i>b</i>	313	526, 527
294	500	313. d	549
294. a-d	500. 1 -4	$313. \ d. \ { t n.}$	549. n. 3
295	502	313. e	527. d
295. R.	502. N.	313. f	527. d. n.
296	508	313. <i>g</i>	527. e
296. R.	503. N. 2	313. h	535. e
297	501, 502	313. i	440
298	504	314	528
298. N.	504. N. 2	314. b	528. a
298. R.	504. a. n. 1 504. c	315 215 a 1	525 525. α
298. a 298. b	504. v. 1	315. a. 1 315. a. 2	525. a. 3. n.
298. c	504. N. 1 504. b	315. d	525. e
299	505. a	316. W	519
299. a	505. a	316. a	520
300	506 and N. 1	317	529, 530
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302	509	317. b. n. 1	558. b
302. R.	509. n. 1	317. b . N. 2	531. a. n.
303	510	317. c	532
303. N. R.	510. N. 1-3	317. c. r.	532. N.
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320. f. n.	535. f. n. 2	331. i. n. 3	565. N. 2
P. 348, mid. n.	539	P. 362, bottom. N.	567
321	540	332	568
321. n. 3	540. a	332. a	569
321. R.	540. n. 3	332. b	571. a
321. a-c	540. b-d	332. <i>c</i>	462. a
P. 349, bottom. N.	541	332. d	571. b
322	542	332. <i>e</i>	568. N. 1
322. R.	585. a. n. 3	332. <i>f</i>	571. c
323	545, 546	332. <i>g</i>	558 550 -
324	543	332. g. r.	558. a
325	545–548	332. g. n. 2	558. a. n. 2
325. a	545	332. h	580. d
325. a. n.	546. n. 4	333 333. <i>b</i> . r.	572
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325. c	549	334. <i>c</i>	576
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326. a. r. 327	550, 551	334. d, e	575. c, d
327. a	551. c	334. f	576. a
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328	552, 553	P. 369. Note	577
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328. 2. n. 1	555. N. 2	335. R.	578. n.
328. a	556	336. 1	579
328. a. n.	556. a. n. 1	336. 2	580
328. R.	556. a. n. 1	336. 2. n. 2	580. a
328. R.	556. a. n. 2	336. 2. n. 3	580. c
329	560, 561	336. a. 1	581
329. n.	561. n. 1	336. a. r.	581. n. 2
329. R.	561. n. 2	336. a. 2	582
329. (classification)	562	336. a. 2. n. 2	582. a. n. 2
330 `	452	336. <i>b</i>	583
330. в.	459	336. <i>c</i>	583. b
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330. R.	562. N.	336. d	583. a
330. a, b	582	336. A	584
330. a. 2	566. b	336. A. n. 1	584. a and N.
330. b. 2	566. c	336. B	585
330. c	582. a	336. B. N. 2	585. a
330. d	582. N.	336. B. a	585. b
330. e	579. ftn. 1	337	589 588
	580. c	338	586 587
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331. e. 2	558. b	339 339. r.	588. <i>a</i>
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331. <i>h</i>	566	341. <i>b</i> – <i>d</i>	592. 1 –3
331. <i>i</i>	565	341. R.	592. n.
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OLD	New	OLD	New
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344	597	362. a. n.	615. N.
344. R.	597. a. n. 2	362. b and R.	615. c and N.
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345	599	364	617
345. a	599. d	365	618
345. d	599. a	366	619
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346	601	367. <i>b</i>	620. c
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347	603	368	622
347. d	603. f	369	623
347. d. n. 1, 2	603. f. n. 2, 3	370	624
347. d. R.	603. f. n. 4	371	625
347. e. r.	603. f. n. 1	372	626
34 8	604	373	627
348. 1–10	604. a-j	374	628
348. 9. Exc.	604. i. 1–6	375	629
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351. b	605	375. d	629. c
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354	606	375. <i>f</i>	
354. d	606. c. n.	375. <i>g</i>	629. d
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356	609	P. 425. Note	630
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356. f	609. e	377	632
357	610	378	633
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357. c	610. b	380	635
358	611	381	636
359	612	382	637
359. b, c	612. d, e	383	638
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